The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 15, 1886.

The Week.

THE vote in the House a week ago against Mr. Bland's bill for the free coinage of silver, and the vote against suspension of the present coinage, have substantially defined the fiscal and monetary situation for a year to come. It is evident that there is a balance of power in Congress, consisting of members really "unfriendly to silver," but who are compelled by the sentiment or prejudice of their constituents to vote against any cessation of the coinage. They perceive, as clearly as anybody can, that the existing law is unphilosophical, useless, and worse than useless, being in fact a wasteful expenditure of $2,000,000 per month for a kind of property not wanted. They have learned this by experience, observation, and discussion, and they would be ready to cast their votes for a suspension of the coinage if they believed that they could safely do so. While they cannot do this at the present time, they can vote on the side issues of the coinage question in such way as to frustrate the intentions of the "friends of silver," and to save the country from the misfortunes of a change in the monetary standard.

What we have to face, therefore, is the continued purchase of $2,000,000 worth of silver bullion per month, and the stamping of the same with the figure of a buzzard and the consoling legend, "In God we Trust." The resulting coins will continue to pile themselves up in the Treasury. No Secretary will touch them, except, of course, so far as may be necessary to transfer them from one vault to another. Nor is it likely that any Congress will compel him to do so. The question of the paying out of silver is one of the side issues upon which the balance of power in Congress may be cast either way without much danger to the individual Congressman. It is not probable that a bill directing the Secretary of the Treasury to pay out silver would get any greater number of votes than Mr. Bland's bill for free coinage received. It is very certain that such a bill would be vetoed, and that it could not be passed over a veto. The course of events is likely to be monotonous for some time to come, consisting of the silent working of the mint and the useless heaping up of silver dollars. Can this go on forever without bringing about a change in the monetary standard? This question cannot be answered *ex cathedra*. If the public revenues exceed the public expenditures by $2,000,000 per month, and if there is no coercive legislation to force the hand of the Secretary of the Treasury, we do not see why the present coinage may not continue indefinitely, without any worse result than a waste of $24,000,000 per annum of the public resources, or rather of the difference between the purchase price and the selling price of that amount of bullion. It is now probable that the coinage will continue until the majority of the people in the South and West get tired of paying this tax, or rather until they come to see that it is a tax and that it can never be anything else. But they will find out the truth some time. Meanwhile there is a chance that Mr. Bland himself may get tired of the present law, which he never favored, and which he has always been trying to supersede by free coinage, and that he may expose its unphilosophical character. It is much to be desired that he should do so, because he would be listened to by the "friends of silver" everywhere. That the present condition should be permanent is politically impossible, whether commercially possible or not. We think that the changes from this time forward must be favorable to the gold standard, and that the decisive vote against free coinage is the first sign of the turning tide.

The bloody collision between deputy sheriffs and the mob at East St. Louis on Friday, in which several men and one woman were killed, is only what was to have been expected any day for the past fortnight. The despatches attempt to apportion the responsibility for the slaughter among the deputy sheriffs who fired the fatal shots, and to fasten the chief blame upon one of them, who is represented to be a cowboy of the dime-novel school. But this is a waste of words. The man really responsible for the loss of life is Richard J. Oglesby, Governor of Illinois, in which State East St. Louis is situated, just as the man responsible for the similar loss of lives at Fort Worth the other day was John Ireland, Governor of Texas. These men, as chief executive officers of their States, were bound by their oaths to dispel mobs and maintain order. Yet they deliberately and persistently refused to do their duty, and by their inaction encouraged ignorant and desperate men to suppose that the power of the State might be defied with impunity. For days before the collision at Fort Worth it had been notorious that the civil authorities of the town needed the support of the commonwealth to protect men who were engaged in the peaceable attempt to keep open railroad communication, and yet the Democratic Governor of Texas neglected to order out the military until the killing had occurred. For days it has been notorious that the small force of civil officials at East St. Louis could not properly protect property and maintain order, yet the Republican Governor of Illinois left these few deputy sheriffs to cope with a mob which was growing more desperate every day. The sheriff of the county may have selected poor material for deputies, but the fact needs to be emphasized, for the benefit of other Executives who may be placed in similar circumstances, that the one man primarily responsible for the East St. Louis killings is the Governor of Illinois, who, knowing by personal observation what duty demanded of him, refused to exercise the power of the State to end the anarchy which has for weeks existed with his connivance.

The investigation into "the disturbed conditions now existing in the relations between railroad corporations engaged in inter-State commerce and their employees in the States of Illinois, Missouri, Kansas, Arkansas, and Texas," moved by Mr. Morrison and adopted by the House, is manifestly nothing but a tub to the whale. There are no disturbed conditions in the relations existing between the Missouri Pacific Railway and its employees. The only disturbance existing is between certain persons who voluntarily ceased to be employees of that company and the officers of the law. If Congress intends to investigate that disagreement, well and good. It is within the scope of its powers to regulate commerce between the States, and if it finds such commerce obstructed, it may remove the obstructions. It may be within the scope of its powers to inquire into the proceedings of a secret society which sets itself up as a branch of Government, which is not the executive, or the legislative, or the judicial branch, but which claims powers belonging to all three. When it finds out what the pretensions of this fourth branch of government are, it may properly express an opinion as to the foundation of its claims, and tell us whether they are reconcilable with the Constitution of the United States. Beyond this it cannot go, as all the members who voted for the resolution well know. The Knights of Labor in the Southwest have worked themselves into the belief that they are a Power, with whom treaties are to be made by other Powers. All their talk runs to the conclusion that, until they are satisfied, there is a disturbance of the comity of states. Even the Executive Board sent out to St. Louis by Mr. Powderly share in this delusion. Much of their talk, which to the average citizen looks like a congeries of unaccountable lies, becomes intelligible if they consider themselves a fourth estate in the affairs of government, struggling for "recognition" by the other accredited authorities of the land.

One of the curious things in the talk of the representatives of the strikers in the Southwest is that they invariably maintain that the strikers commit no acts of violence to persons or property, that the stopping of trains, "killing" of engines, tearing up of tracks, and disarrangement of switches and threatening or assaulting of guards, are all the work of wicked outsiders. It makes little difference, however, who does the actual violence, if violence be the constant accompaniment of every strike and the first condition of its success. People who deliberately and knowingly give wicked men a chance to commit wickedness, are just as bad as if they were wicked themselves. As a matter of fact, no large strike of unskilled or slightly skilled labor in this country would succeed for two days in stopping any kind of business, but for the prompt appearance of wicked outsiders to kick and cuff and maim and murder the persons who take the place of the strikers, and to break or burn or in some manner damage the machinery, or utensils, or stock in trade of the employers. The whole strike system, as at present con-

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ducted, is, in fact, based on fraud and violence, and the feeble requests of the Master Workman and the Secretary to the strikers to be good and gentle and rely on justice and moral suasion, are sickening the public.

Plans for boycotting Jay Gould are said to be on foot in the councils of the local organization of the Knights of Labor. It was commonly understood that the strike on the Missouri-Pacific Railroad was a boycott of Gould on the largest possible scale, and that it had turned out a failure. If there are any other resources in the armory of Knighthood by which Gould can be reached, it would be interesting to know what they are. The proceeding would at least divide public attention with the boycott of Mrs. Gray. It might even rehabilitate Gould to some extent in public estimation. The way of getting at him will need to be first devised, and this will be a matter of no small difficulty, seeing that he keeps a private yacht and can load it up with provisions and run out to sea in case he finds himself cut off by the butcher and baker and candlestick-maker in the city. We advise the local Knights not to make themselves ridiculous by dividing their forces between a Missouri boycott and a New York boycott. Let them rather concentrate their efforts in sustaining Martin Irons and his followers in their heroic abstention from labor in the Southwest. Every dollar contributed to the support of idle men on the line of the Missouri-Pacific Railway will fill Gould with dismay, while he will laugh in his sleeve at all attempts to cut off his private bread and butter in New York.

The latest phenomenon in the "labor question" is the closing of a silk mill in Paterson employing 1,200 hands. A cigarmaker from Albany, holding some sort of position among the Knights of Labor, went down there a few days ago, and insisted on having important changes made in the management of the dye-house. Being denied, he "snapped his fingers," as he passed through the factory, and thereupon every man and boy in it quit work. None of them knew why the cigarmaker snapped his fingers, and they say now it was tyrannical of him to do so, but they quitted work just the same. The local Assembly has since waited on the proprietor, Mr. Strange, to say it was all a mistake and ask him to take the strikers back; but on ascertaining that the cigarmaker had not been expelled or even censured for snapping his fingers, he refused to do so, and will not reopen the mill as long as his business is at the mercy of wandering cigarmakers. There is a comic side to nearly everything, and the comic side of this is that a body of men who can be made to abandon their means of livelihood on receiving a sign from an unknown man, complain bitterly of "the tyranny of capital." In this city the drivers and conductors on the Fourth Avenue Railroad after having settled all their differences with their own employers, struck again, without knowing why, on having two fingers held up to them by a man who walked along the track. And yet these men are American citizens, and look down on the Russians and Prussians and Italians.

The discussion in the Senate last week over the proposed amendment to the Army Bill allowing the employment as officers in the Federal army of men who served in the Confederate army, reads like a leaf out of some old history. Among the men on the Republican side of the Senate sat one of the chief of the Confederate brigadiers, the trusted lieutenant of Robert E. Lee, engaged in making laws for the nation which he sought to destroy. With this spectacle before him the ancient Conger of Michigan, a relic of the bloody-shirt era which everybody else sees has past, had the assurance to get up and make a long speech, urging that it would be disloyal to allow some unknown Confederate soldier to earn by his merits a place in the Federal army, while one of the most famous Confederate generals sits in the Federal Congress and helps to frame the laws which the army may be called upon to enforce! It is seldom that we have a chance to speak well of Mahone, and we are therefore glad to say that he showed consistency and sense in voting to make no distinction between the "Confederate brigadier" and the Confederate private. More noteworthy than this is the fact that two other Republicans, who were on the Union side during the war, voted with the ex-rebel Republican and the Democrats for the proposed amendment. When men like Jones, of Nevada, and Don Cameron, of Pennsylvania, show independence enough to take such a stand, bloody-shirt orators of the Conger school must recognize that their occupation is gone.

The President's appointment of Senator Jackson, of Tennessee, to fill the vacancy in the United States Circuit Judgeship caused by Judge Baxter's death, is highly commended by candid men of all parties. Like his selection of Mr. Merrick for the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia last year, it shows that Mr. Cleveland can be trusted to discharge this most responsible branch of the Executive's duty with a conscientious purpose to do the best thing for the country. The assurance that new judicial offices would be filled in this spirit ought to stir up members of both parties in each branch of Congress to the passage of some bill for the relief of the overworked Supreme Court of the United States, either by an addition to the present bench or by the creation of a new intermediate court.

The Forty-ninth Congress has earned a long credit-mark by passing the bill providing for the erection of a National Library building at Washington. The plans which have been adopted contemplate a structure about 460 feet in length and 310 feet in depth, and the most eminent European architects commend the scheme as likely to produce the finest building, for the purpose in view, to be found anywhere in the world. The building will be placed a square east of the Capitol, and will add another to the growing attractions of the city, while its erection will end the long-standing scandal of the present grossly inadequate arrangements for housing the vast library already collected.

When Congressman Willis, of Kentucky, some three weeks ago, decided to take the Blair bill away from the Committee on Education, he picked out the Labor Committee as one which could be trusted to report it back to the House favorably without the slightest hesitation. But the members of the Labor Committee no sooner began to examine the matter than they were impressed with the fatal objections to the scheme, and a majority of the Committee is found to be opposed to the project. The opponents of the bill have always maintained that a careful consideration was the only thing needed to secure its rejection, and every new development in its history shows that they were right.

The passage of the Mexican Pension Bill by the House is a discouraging sign that good sense stands little chance in that body in a contest with demagogism. The measure proposes to give $8 a month to every man who was enlisted in the United States army during the war with Mexico, whether he saw any active service or not, whether he was wounded or not, whether he is to-day a millionaire or a tramp; and to the widow of any such man. It is, in short, in the form in which it was presented, an utterly indefensible measure, and yet only 69 Representatives recorded themselves against it, to 157 in its favor. High praise must be awarded the few Southern members who voted against it, for it is the one possible pension measure which promises to do anything for their section, a large share of the United States army in that war having come from what is now called "the solid South." We are glad to see that on the short "roll of honor" which records the members with independence enough to vote their convictions, are so many New York names.

It is a great pity that the Committee on Rules had not reported back that proposed change, which authorizes the addition as an amendment to any pension bill of a clause imposing the extra taxes which the bill will require. The money which it is proposed to toss about in this haphazard way is money which must be raised by taxation, and by new taxation. This is the fact which ought to be pushed home every time by the opponents of every scheme for extravagant appropriations, since nothing can be more fatal to even the most plausible project. As Congressman Tucker, of Virginia, told a correspondent the other day, in speaking of the $77,000,000 Educational Bill: "If the money which it is proposed to appropriate had to be raised by direct taxation, there would not be a vote in the House for the measure." The real strength of all these pension jobs is the impression which has been so sedulously cultivated that there is a "vast surplus" in the Treasury, which may be drawn upon for any purpose without any taxpayer's being a cent worse off. It cannot be too often repeated that there is no surplus at all for the next fiscal year, opening with the 1st of July, 1886, for which Congress is now making appropriations. On the contrary, Secretary Manning has shown that the estimated expenditures of the Government for that fiscal year exceed the estimated re-

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venues by $24,589,552, and that was before the passage last month of the bill increasing the rate of widows' pensions and calling for $6,000,000 more a year, which increases the estimated deficit for the fiscal year 1886-87 above $30,000,000.

The fact that several Democrats in the Senate voted on Saturday with the Republicans for the bill to admit into the Union Washington Territory, after the northern "pan-handle" of Idaho has been united with it, indicates that there may be a chance for the measure in the lower branch of Congress. Public sentiment would sustain such action. The Territory has already sufficient population and assurance of future growth to justify its erection into a State, and the manly fashion in which its people put down the anti-Chinese rioters a few weeks ago shows that it is no longer a frontier settlement, but a well-ordered community. The House should, however, insist upon a change in the name of the Territory before it becomes a State. It would be a grave mistake to perpetuate the confusion caused by retaining the present title, and the mistake would be the more inexcusable when so ideal a substitute as Tacoma is at hand.

The special-delivery service of the postal department does not grow in popularity. On the contrary, the number of letters carried in the mails under this stamp has grown smaller every month since the system was started, and the total for February was only 65,159, against 86,123 in November. There is nothing strange about this, for the service has little to recommend it. Anybody who really demands celerity is pretty sure to prefer the telegraph or the messenger service, and the possible field is thus very restricted. Then, too, the system causes no little inconvenience to recipients of letters. A letter bearing this stamp, if received at the office at any moment before midnight, must be delivered that night, and the result is that people are waked out of their sleep at half-past 12 or 1 o'clock to receive letters which would be brought around by breakfast-time at the first carrier's round, and which they do not care about getting before that time. The amount of midnight profanity caused by this special-delivery business in the course of a year is by no means inconsiderable.

Thursday was so-called Fast Day in Massachusetts, and the incongruity between the name and the thing was never more marked. For the overwhelming majority of the population the occasion is a holiday, pure and simple, while its observance in a religious way grows more perfunctory every year. That it has become an anachronism, and has no strength except the *vis inertiæ* possessed by every tradition, is strikingly demonstrated by these comments of the Boston *Congregationalist:*

"Thursday of this week is Fast Day in Massachusetts, and Governor Robinson has issued a proclamation, as usual, recommending its observance. So long as it is set apart annually thus, it certainly is desirable that Christian people refrain from treating it as a mere holiday, like the Fourth of July. The question whether it would not be wiser to abandon its observance—except in cases of special and recognized importance, such as occurred now and then during the war of the Rebellion—continues to be discussed actively. A few object to its appointment on the ground that the State should not determine religious occasions, and others because of its treatment by such multitudes as a day of actual jollification. The desire of many for a business holiday about this time is met by the proposition to make a legal holiday of April 19, the anniversary of the battle of Lexington."

The *Congregationalist* is the recognized organ of the denomination whose name it bears—a denomination which only two generations since was still virtually the established State Church of Massachusetts. Yet the *Congregationalist* utters no word of protest against the talk about abolishing Fast Day, but tacitly endorses the proposition to substitute for the obsolescent religious occasion a genuine popular holiday. It is evidently only a question of a short time when this change will be made.

Good sense is so seldom shown in the nomenclature of States and towns that any exhibition of this quality merits general commendation. Horseheads had been, from its earliest settlement, the name of a village in Chemung County, half-a-dozen miles north of the city of Elmira. It perpetuated the memory of an interesting historical event—the slaughter by General Sullivan's forces of their horses, on their return from the expedition against the Six Nations, as the remainder of the journey back to civilization was made by water. The name was distinctive, historical, unique; in short, it possessed every claim to preservation. About a year ago, however, somebody conceived the idea that the title was "not sufficiently high-toned," and managed to get it changed to the meaningless North Elmira. But, after taking time to think the matter over, the people of the village have repented of their folly in hastily consenting to the alteration, and they have just secured the restoration of the familiar old name.

The prospects of Mr. Gladstone's Home Rule Bill seem to be slightly improving within the last day or two, the first burst of rage and surprise among its opponents being over, and the figure cut by the revolting Liberals having proved on the whole poor. Nobody in the opposition has suffered more than Chamberlain. His attack on Gladstone was inexcusably fierce and bitter, even if it had been strong. But the reference to Gladstone's opinions about the prospects of the Southern Confederacy had all the marks of a demagogue's trick. He drew the inference, amid Tory cheers, that Gladstone's having made a mistake on a question of foreign politics concerning which his information must at best have been exceedingly slight and vague, created a presumption of some force that he was also mistaken about a question of home politics with which he had been familiar for fifty years, and to the study of which he had given his best powers. It is impossible to suppose that any man in Chamberlain's position can resort to a device of this sort toward a colleague without permanent injury to his reputation and influence.

The Greek war fever continues to trouble the kingdom and the diplomatic world. The Minister of War has visited the northern defences, and promised a speedy call to the field of battle if the claims of Hellenic honor are not satisfied. The warnings of the great Powers remain unheeded in Athens. Coercion is threatened, but not unanimously, Russia ostentatiously refusing all participation in it. Greece has won the special favor of the Czar by arming against Bulgaria simultaneously with Servia, without being, like that kingdom, a protégé of Austria-Hungary. On this favor and the known, though diplomatically disguised, repugnance of both the English and French Governments to the use of force in favor of Ottoman sway, against a Christian people aspiring to national integrity, the Greeks reckon in their patriotic excitement. Yet they may easily overestimate the value of that repugnance. Not only is their old friend Mr. Gladstone very uncertain of to-morrow's possession of power, but he may, however reluctantly, himself carry out the threats of coercion already made, with the same startling deviation from cherished principles and predilections which he has shown in Afghanistan, in South Africa, in Egypt and the Sudan, and in Burmah. And France cannot afford to separate her action from that of England and make common cause with Russia as long as the influence of Germany is emphatically exercised on the anti-Russian side. The occupation of the Piræus by a hostile fleet, with all that it implies, may be executed under the auspices of Mr. Gladstone and M. Freycinet as effectively and injuriously as it was executed under those of Lord Palmerston and Napoleon III. during the Crimean War.

On the other hand, Greece is encouraged by the recollection of favorable issues in similar complications. Like the House of Savoy in our time, she has repeatedly made territorial acquisitions without achieving them with the sword of victory. Clamors and agitations, with threats of warlike risings, sufficed to induce the British Government to give up the protectorate of the Ionian Isles, and surrender them to her, in 1863. She threatened the invasion of Thessaly and Epirus, without drawing the sword, in 1876 and 1877; she did not dare to strike a blow even after the fall of Plevna, but continued to menace, obtained a vague promise of cession in an article of the Berlin Treaty, armed and blustered, extorted conference after conference during the Turco-Montenegrin frontier difficulties, and finally, in 1881, wrung from the fears and exhaustion of Turkey the cession of the greater part of the coveted two provinces. She hopes to extort the rest now, by perseveringly acting in the same way, though at an immense financial sacrifice. Besides, after having gone so far on the war-path, the Delyannis Cabinet can retreat with honor and safety only before the combined power of Europe, and it thus consciously challenges warlike coercion. In fact, not only the Delyannis Administration is exposed to a sudden collapse, but the throne of George I. himself may be swept away by the popular indignation at a cowardly lowering of the national banner. Was not the alleged neglect of warlike duty, in 1854 and after, the main cause of the downfall of the throne of Otho I. in 1862? It is, however, clear that the obstinacy of the Greek Government is at this juncture too inopportune, too dangerous to the peace of Europe to be long tolerated by the western and central Powers.

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SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

WEDNESDAY, April 7, to TUESDAY, April 13, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE Republican majority in the Senate have made another concession to the Executive in dealing with appointments. Certain nominations were sent to the Senate to fill the places of suspended officials. Under the ruling of the majority these nominations were held up. In the meantime the terms of some of the Republican incumbents have expired, thereby creating vacancies. Instead of confirming the nominations before them, such nominations were, at the suggestion of Republican Senators, withdrawn and the same persons renominated, with the understanding that no objection will be urged against them.

The President has withdrawn from the Senate the nomination of Orlando W. Powers, of Michigan, to be an Associate Justice of the Supreme Court of the Territory of Utah, against whose character much has been said.

The President on Monday nominated Senator Howell E. Jackson, of Tennessee, to be Circuit Judge of the United States for the Sixth District, to succeed the late Judge Baxter. He was immediately confirmed. His term would have expired in 1887.

In the Senate on Wednesday on the debate on the bill to increase the army to 30,000, Mr. Gibson (Dem., La.) moved an amendment which would repeal the law forbidding the employment as officers in the Union Army of any man who served in the Confederate Army. He held that the law was unconstitutional, as it was class legislation, and that there was no longer any reason for such a statute. Mr. Gibson's motion was lost by a vote of 24 yeas to 25 nays, Cameron of Pennsylvania, Jones of Nevada, and Mahone of Virginia voting with the Democrats in the affirmative. The Army Bill was then defeated by 19 to 31, the following Republicans voting nay with the Democrats: Bowen of Colorado, Chace of Rhode Island, Conger, Hale, Ingalls, Jones of Nevada, Plumb, Sherman, Teller, Van Wyck, and Wilson of Iowa.

The Senate on Thursday passed the bill granting to the Kansas and Arkansas Railroad Company a right of way for a railroad through the Indian Territory—yeas 36, nays 8.

On Thursday the Senate passed the House bill to provide for the erection of a building on Capitol Hill for a Congressional library.

The Senate on Tuesday began debate on the question of abolishing secret executive sessions. Senator Platt, of Connecticut, favored that action in a vigorous speech.

When the Free-Coinage Silver Bill came to a vote in the House of Representatives on Thursday afternoon, Mr. Dibble (Dem., S. C.) offered an amendment providing that unless, through concurrent action of the nations of Europe with the United States, silver be remonetized prior to July 1, 1889, then and thereafter so much of the act of February 28, 1878, as authorizes and directs the Secretary of the Treasury to purchase silver bullion and cause the same to be coined, shall be suspended until further action by Congress. This was defeated—yeas 84, nays 201. The Free-Coinage Bill was then defeated—yeas 126, nays 163. Of the 163 votes cast against the bill, 70 were cast by Democrats and 93 by Republicans. Of the 126 votes cast for the bill, 97 were cast by Democrats and 29 by Republicans.

The House on Monday voted to appoint a committee to investigate the strike in the Southwest.

The House Committee on Territories has, by a vote of 6 to 5, agreed to report favorably a bill to provide for the organization of the Indian Territory and the public land strip into the Territory of Oklahoma.

Joseph Pulitzer has resigned the position of Representative in Congress from the Ninth District of New York, for the reason that he is not able to attend to its duties and to his business as an editor at the same time.

The Secretary of the Interior has revoked the order of Commissioner Sparks, of the General Land Office, of April 3, 1885, suspending final action upon entries upon the public lands.

The Chinese Minister at Washington has made formal complaint to the Secretary of State in regard to the treatment of his successor at San Francisco at the hands of the United States customs officials. The United States officers at San Francisco deny that there was any discourtesy.

General Miles has succeeded General Crook in command of the Department of Arizona. General Miles says he will continue the pursuit of the hostile Apaches until they are killled or captured.

A mob of 1,000 strikers on Wednesday visited the railroad yards in East St. Louis, Ill., and drove all men from work. At the Chicago and Alton yards they were driven back by deputy marshals armed with rifles. There was no fighting.

A crowd of strikers formed at the Relay depot in East St. Louis on Friday, and advanced in the direction of the railroad yards to stop work by the new men now employed there. They were met by a small guard of deputies, who ordered them to disperse. The mob refused, and made a rush for the yards, when the deputies levelled their Winchesters and fired, killing seven of the crowd, including one woman. The strikers throughout the city became very much incensed, and at 10 o'clock on Friday night began burning railroad property by way of retaliation. The Louisville and Nashville, and the Cairo Short Line freight yards were visited and about fifty cars were burned, with scale houses and a lumber yard. Roundhouses and shops were partly saved. The total loss was about $50,000. Governor Oglesby at last ordered the militia to the scene of trouble, and nine companies were on duty on Saturday. They preserved order throughout the day.

The Gould system railway strike on Tuesday seemed to be dying out. Freight was moving freely from St. Louis and East St. Louis. No disorders were anywhere reported.

In the Rhode Island election on Wednesday, Governor Wetmore and all the rest of the Republican ticket were elected except Attorney-General Colt. The latter was defeated by Edwin Metcalf, candidate of the Democrats and Prohibitionists. His majority was 1,620. The Constitutional Amendment prohibiting the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors was carried by a decisive majority. The result was a surprise to the Republicans, and was brought about by dissatisfaction with the way in which Mr. Colt's renomination had been forced on the party, and by the Prohibition vote.

The Field Code was reported favorably in the New York Assembly on Thursday by the Judiciary Committee.

Interest in the Broadway Railway scandal of this city was increased on Friday when it became known that ex-Alderman Miller had been arrested in Florida. This was intensified when about noon President James B. Richmond, of the Broadway Road, was also arrested charged with bribery. The excitement reached its height on Tuesday, when ex-Aldermen Wendel, Duffy, Sheils, O'Neil, Fullgraff, Cleary, McCabe, McQuade, Farley, and Sayles, all of whom were members of the Board of Aldermen of 1884, were arrested and taken to Police Headquarters. Later in the day ex-Alderman Finck was also arrested. Fifteen ex-Aldermen in all are now under arrest on the charge of bribery. Twelve of them were formally indicted by the Grand Jury on Tuesday.

Thomas Anthony Thacher, LL. D., Professor in Yale College of the Latin Language and Literature, was found dead in bed of heart disease on Wednesday. He was seventy-one years of age. He was graduated at Yale in 1835, and with some interruptions has been connected with that college since 1838. Professor Thacher was a prolific writer. His 'De Officiis' of Cicero and 'Madvig's Latin Grammar' are widely known.

Mr. John Welsh, Minister to England during President Hayes's Administration, died in Philadelphia on Saturday aged eighty-one.

Thaddeus Fairbanks, the inventor of the platform scales, died at St. Johnsbury, Vt., on Monday, aged ninety years. He was a very wealthy and a very liberal giver, educational buildings alone at St. Johnsbury having received from him over $200,000.

FOREIGN.

The scenes in and around the House of Commons on Thursday, the day set for Mr. Gladstone's great speech, surpassed any similar event within the memory of living men. The doors were opened for members of Parliament at 6 o'clock in the morning, and they immediately began to secure advantageous seats. The Parnellites massed themselves opposite Mr. Gladstone's seat. In a very short time the House was filled, and the members were prepared to wait all day for the eventful speech. Outside, the crowds were tremendous, and covered all the space down to Westminster Bridge, and extended pretty well up Parliament Street toward Whitehall. Irish and Liberal political clubs without number were there prepared to give the Premier a great reception. Mr. Gladstone went in an open carriage from his house in Downing Street to the Parliament Building. The enthusiasm of the people all the way from the door of his house to the Commons entrance was spontaneous and thrilling. It vented itself at the beginning of the journey in a roar of applause, and when the whole immense multitude caught the signal, one tremendous, long-sustained cheer was sent up, the like of which was seldom if ever before heard in London, and which was plainly audible in the House. The cheering continued long after Mr. Gladstone had entered the Parliament buildings. Inside the building his reception was equally cordial. He entered at 4:30 P. M. As soon as the cheering had ceased Mr. Gladstone rose and moved for permission to introduce a bill to amend previous legislation, and to make provision for the future government of Ireland.

Mr. Gladstone spoke for three hours and twenty-five minutes, and achieved a splendid personal triumph. It is only possible to give in a brief paragraph a few of the significant features of his scheme for home rule. It provided, he said, for an independent Irish Parliament, the duration of which is not to exceed five years. The functions which it was proposed to withdraw from the cognizance of the legislative body were three: everything which related to the Crown; all that which belonged to the defence, the army, the navy, the entire organization of the armed force, and our foreign and colonial relations. It would not be competent to pass laws for the establishment or endowment of any particular religion. The bill proposed to introduce two orders who would sit and deliberate together, with the right of voting separately on any occasion and on the demand of either body, which should be able to interpose a veto upon any measure for a limited time, either until the dissolution or for three years. The orders would be constituted as follows: First, there were the twenty-eight representative peers, who could not continue to sit in the House of Lords after the representatives of the Irish people left the House of Commons. They would have the option of sitting as a portion of the first order in the Irish Parliament, with the power of sitting for life. He proposed that with the twenty-eight peers now in the House of Lords there should sit seventy-five representatives elected by the Irish people. With regard to the powers of election, the

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constituency would be composed of occupiers of the value of £25 and upward, and they would be elected for ten years. The property qualification of these representatives would be £200 annual value, or a capital of £4,000. Mr. Gladstone then said he proposed that the 101 Irish members in the House of Commons should be members of the Irish Parliament, and while the first order of the legislative body would consist of 103 members, the second order would consist of 206.

It was proposed to retain the Viceroy, but he would not be the representative of a party or quit office with the outgoing Government. The Queen would be empowered to delegate to him any prerogatives she now enjoyed or would enjoy. The religious disability now existing, which makes Roman Catholics ineligible to the office, would be removed. The constabulary would remain under the present terms of service and under their present authority. The charge for the constabulary was now £1,500,000 per annum, and the speaker felt confident the charge would be reduced, but for the present he proposed to relieve the Irish legislative body of all expenditures for the constabulary in excess of £1,000,000 per annum. The proportion of the imperial burdens which he had to propose that Ireland should bear was as one to fourteen. He then entered into an elaborate calculation of the total income and expenditure of Ireland, in the course of which he stated that the total charge to Ireland as an imperial contribution he put at £3,242,000 per annum. He estimated the total expenditure of Ireland, including a payment as a sinking fund for the Irish portion of the national debt, at £7,946,000 per annum. Against that there was a total income of £8,350,000, or a surplus to the Government of £404,000.

The peroration of Mr. Gladstone's speech was most eloquent and impressive. Mr. George Otto Trevelyan, who had resigned his position as Secretary for Scotland, then proceeded to explain his reasons for that course, and, as an alternative scheme, said he would propose that the execution of the law and the maintenance of order should be maintained in the hands of the central government. Then he would propose the creation of certain local bodies which should be composed of members freely elected. These bodies should be intrusted with and held responsible for many of the subordinate functions of government, such as providing for education, superintending the details of local government, providing for the relief of the poor, and so forth.

Mr. Parnell then delivered an eloquent address, praising Mr. Gladstone's scheme, and incidentally justifying the course of Americans and Irish-Americans toward Ireland. The bill, he said, nevertheless contained blots which the Irish representatives would do their best to remove. One of these was to be found in the financial proposals of the bill, which he regarded as very unfavorable to Ireland, especially in regard to the Irish tribute to the imperial exchequer. He also complained of the proposition relative to the two orders intended to constitute the Irish Parliament, on the ground that the first order, consisting of peers not subject to the influence of the popular vote, would have the power of hanging up measures demanded by the people and their representatives for two or three years. On the whole, however, apart from these defects, he believed the measure would be cheerfully accepted by the Irish people and their representatives as a satisfactory solution of the long-standing dispute between the two countries, and as tending to prosperity and peace in Ireland and to satisfaction in England.

In the House of Commons on Friday night Mr. Chamberlain rose to explain why he had resigned from the Cabinet. He began by introducing certain features of the land-purchase scheme, and was immediately interrupted by Mr. Gladstone, who said that her Majesty's Government had not given him permission to reveal the land proposals. An angry discussion ensued, which greatly disconcerted Mr. Chamberlain. In his speech, which was coldly received, he took four principal objections to Mr. Gladstone's scheme for governing Ireland. The first was to the proposal to exclude the Irish members from Westminster. His second objection was to renouncing, as proposed, the exercise of the right of imperial taxation. In the third place he objected to the surrender of the appointments of judges and magistrates, and, finally, he objected to the supreme authority given to the Irish Parliament in matters not specially excluded from its authority. He would propose to deprive landlords of the power to evict for six months, guaranteeing them six months' rent, the land being security for the sum advanced. During this period a peace commission, composed of members of every section represented in Parliament, could conduct an exhaustive inquiry into the land question. Besides this, he looked for a solution of the home-rule matter in the direction of federation. He was not, he declared, pedantically pledged to his former proposals for a national council.

The Marquis of Hartington made a notable speech, which was moderate in its opposition, but determined. In the course of it he said if the scheme was good for Ireland, it was good equally for Scotland and Wales. If the latter demanded domestic legislatures of their own, and the demand was conceded, the result would be that there would be a house of Parliament with every Scotch and Welsh member excluded, acting as an imperial legislature for the whole United Kingdom. If the people of England and Scotland thought injustice was being done to the minority in Ireland, that minority would not appeal to them in vain, and he feared that in that way this bill, introduced in the interests of peace, was likely to occasion more serious disturbances than any that had yet arisen. "We cannot," he said, "escape from responsibility by the delegation to another body of executive power, which we know would be used by it in a manner we should condemn." Mr. John Morley also spoke, vigorously defending Mr. Gladstone's policy. The debate was then adjourned.

In the House of Commons on Monday night Lord Randolph Churchill resumed the debate on the home-rule scheme. He said that after long consideration he had come to the conclusion that the scheme involved such a complicated and inextricable mass of contradictions that if anybody besides Mr. Gladstone had proposed it, it never would have been taken seriously. He had vainly searched all the authorities, ancient and modern, for a precedent for Mr. Gladstone's two orders which were to compose the proposed Irish Parliament. The first order was intended specially to represent property, and it was worthy of attention that the great leader of the great Liberal party had chosen such an antiquated and discarded machine as the property qualification for the electorate of this first order. The second order was also elective. Both orders were to sit together, and one order could veto any measure brought in by the other. The real principle of the bill, he said, was simply repeal of the Union. On the question of Ulster he asked if an Irish Government could pay its way if Ulster were withdrawn. That the English Government could not make up its mind in regard to Ulster proved the almost insoluble character of the home-rule project. The Premier justified his proposals on the ground that there were eighty-six home rulers in the House. But why should the voices of eighty-six Irish members prevail over the voices of the 584 other members? History showed the rise and decline of former Irish parties. So the Parnellites, formidable to-day, were in danger of disunion to-morrow. Lord Randolph's speech lacked his usual aggressiveness and caused disappointment, Mr. Russell, the Attorney-General, made a labored reply. Mr. Bradlaugh and others spoke.

On Tuesday night Sir William Vernon Harcourt, Chancellor of the Exchequer, made a forcible speech in defence of the Government measure, dwelling on the want of unity among its opponents, and uttering a warning against an aristocratic desertion from the Liberal ranks on account of it. Mr. Goschen also spoke effectively on the other side, rehearsing with much vehemence the difficulties in the way, but proposing nothing except a system of government through local and municipal bodies in Ireland. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach followed, not very weightily. Mr. Gladstone's summary reply was very spirited and telling, and intimated that the removal of the Irish delegation from Westminster was not a vital part of his scheme. Leave to introduce the bill was then granted without a division.

Lord Wolseley, in a speech in London on Saturday night, said that the English Empire had been built and preserved through the valor and endurance of its soldiers and sailors, directed by able statesmen. Hitherto it had been their lot to defend their country against foreign foes, but now they were called upon by the people of England to do duty in trampling under foot enemies more serious, because they were enemies within the civil boundaries. He called upon the English nation to say, "Stand off!" to any one, whoever he might be, who should dare to try to break or dismember the empire, thereby ruthlessly destroying it. The speech was received with deafening cheers.

A sensation was caused on Monday in London by the sudden right-about-face of the *Daily News*, the Ministerial organ, and the only London journal hitherto supporting Mr. Gladstone's home-rule scheme. It said editorially: "We are constrained to admit our conviction that the country is not yet ripe for home rule in Ireland. We regard Mr. Gladstone's scheme as one of the most consummate pieces of constructive statesmanship presented even by the author of a series of Irish land acts which have delivered Ireland from the incubus of an alien church. But we do not conceal our belief that though the measure may pass its first or second reading, it cannot, unless a remarkable change takes place in public opinion, become a law at this session."

The lower house of the Prussian Landtag on Wednesday, by a vote of 214 to 120, adopted the bill expropriating the land of the Poles in Posen, and colonizing the province with Germans.

Prince Alexandria, of Bulgaria, telegraphed to the Porte on Thursday his formal acceptance of the protocol limiting his Governorship of Eastern Rumelia to five years.

The Porte has sent to the Powers a circular declaring that as Bulgaria has settled its dispute with them, it becomes necessary to put a stop to the bellicose conduct of Greece, as it is compelling Turkey to support an enormous military outlay.

The Greek Chamber of Deputies has passed a vote of confidence in the Government by 129 to 83. The crowd outside greeted the result with enthusiasm, showing the strength of the war sentiment.

Just after the train carrying the Czar and Czarina to the Crimea had passed Tcharkoff on Wednesday, four men, who acted in a suspicious manner, were arrested on the railroad track at that place. It is supposed that they had been engaged in a plot to blow up the train.

The intended journey of the Czar to Nova Tcherkask to present his son to the Cossacks as their chief, has been prevented by the discovery of a dynamite plot to assassinate the imperial party. A Cossack officer and his brother have been arrested. They are believed to be Nihilist agents.

A third member of the party of wolf-bitten Russians who came to Paris to be treated by M. Pasteur, has died. Like the other two, he showed symptoms of hydrophobia.

The Italian Ministry of Signor Depretis, formed June 29, 1885, has resigned.

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MR. GLADSTONE'S TRIUMPH.

It is not too much to say that Mr. Gladstone was on Thursday the leading figure in the greatest incident in Parliamentary history. There were scenes in the Long Parliament which, seen through the light of subsequent events, surpassed it in tragic interest, but in no legislative assembly either in Great Britain or America has there ever been so great a purely Parliamentary occasion. Neither could any dramatist, by the highest exercise of his talent and skill, have prepared for his dénouement with half the completeness and impressiveness with which the ordinary course of British politics prepared for Mr. Gladstone's entry on the stage a week ago. Everything that had been happening in England and Ireland during the last fifty years seemed to have contributed something to create the pomp and pride and circumstance which surrounded the last act in a great career. Everybody who was present must have felt that he had witnessed the greatest example the world is likely to see of the art of persuasion applied to the work of government—that is, oratory rendering its best service. For, unlike most orators in our time, Mr. Gladstone had neither to announce the resolve of a great party, nor to charm the ears of weary or idle people with picturesque imagery or rounded periods. He had to win over a nation to a sacrifice which nearly every quality to which it owes its greatness makes exceedingly hard; to satisfy a whole people that even a partial measure of Irish independence does not mean the dismemberment of the empire on which generation after generation has expended so much blood, and money, and genius, and valor.

That he has succeeded it would be premature to-day to assert. But he has done all that oratory in the service of the most remarkable constructive power the modern world has seen can do. The effect of his speech was heightened by the blunder of allowing Mr. Trevelyan to follow him as his first critic with a "plan" of his own; Mr. Trevelyan, being a gentle, amiable man, of no capacity whatever as a legislator, with but little as an orator, and still somewhat damaged by his failure as Irish Secretary. Opposition which opened in such a way seems almost doomed to disaster. It would have been wiser to follow the example of Pitt in moving the adjournment of the House after Sheridan's speech on the Begum charge in the Warren Hastings case, on the ground that calm discussion was impossible while the influence of such eloquence was still fresh. The one person to speak was Mr. Parnell, and he had but to say, and he said it, that the Irish accepted Mr. Gladstone's scheme, to make its final success all but certain. We say final success, because it is impossible to suppose that such a popular greeting as Mr. Gladstone has had, and such a speech as he has made can be disposed of or made null and void and of no effect by anything this Parliament, or indeed any Parliament, can now say or do. They both stand, and will continue to stand, as momentous and impressive endorsements of the Irish position. No man can successfully maintain hereafter before the English public that the Irish demands are unreasonable or even dangerous. Their claims have been brought within the domain of practical politics by the endorsement of the greatest lawgiver of our time, and they are certain now to remain there until they are satisfied. English timidity, which is now the main obstacle to their satisfaction, will vanish through familiarity with them, and the "leap in the dark," from which Conservatives now recoil, will be taken finally with as good a heart as the former one in 1867, when the suffrage was extended. The opposition to it, in fact, rests now on nothing better, as Mr. Gladstone pointed out in one of the finest and shrewdest passages in his speech, than "a basis of despair." Its opponents have really nothing to urge against it, in view of what has happened in various other countries of the modern world, than the theory that "an Irishman is a *lusus naturæ*; that justice, common sense, moderation, national prosperity have no meaning for him; that all that he can understand and all that he can appreciate is strife, perpetual dissension." This is really the argument of Froude and Goldwin Smith and some other literary politicians, but it, of course, can only be urged on practical politicians as a *jeu d'esprit*.

The part of the plan which is exciting most hostility, strange to say, appears to be the exclusion of the Irish from seats in the Imperial Parliament. The Irish are glad to go, but they find, probably to their surprise, now that their going seems near at hand, that the Conservatives and Whigs want them to stay, and that their staying would reassure a good many doubting Liberals. That is to say, the proposed total withdrawal of the Irish from all participation in the work of legislation at Westminster gives the scheme the air of a complete separation which the British public finds startling. On this point Mr. Gladstone, it is now said, is prepared to make modifications; that is, he is prepared to retain some Irish representation at Westminster to vote on the imperial appropriations and other matters of joint concern. This appears to be all the more necessary if, as he also proposes, the Irish customs are to remain in the hands of the English Government. Their proceeds, it is true, are to be applied to Irish purposes, but as long as the Irish do not control them or share in control of them, the scheme is open to the charge, which Lord Randolph Churchill makes, of being taxation without representation.

The importance of the scheme to this country is only second to its importance to England and Ireland. We do not need to call our readers' attention to the debauching influence on American politics of this prolonged and bitter strife between England and Ireland. In asking the 2,000,000 of men and women of Irish birth who are now in this country to withdraw their attention and interest from that strife, on taking up their abode here, and busy themselves in their duties as American citizens, Americans have not been asking more than the Constitution of the United States and the best interests of the country called for; but they have been asking more than human nature could ever give. No people similarly circumstanced would probably act any better under the circumstances, barring the dynamite, than the Irish Americans have done. Nor was it fair, as we pointed out two or three years ago, when the dynamite was a burning question, to throw on this Government the sole burden and responsibility of keeping within the limits of order and humanity and law the vast mass of Irish discontent and hatred cast on our shores. As long as Ireland was governed in absolute indifference to or in defiance of Irish opinion and feeling, this Government was more or less paralyzed in any attempt to prevent Irish plottings on these shores against English peace and dignity. But, worse than this, it was impossible also to prevent Irish questions from forcing their way into American politics, and exerting a most demoralizing influence both on our elections and our legislation. Demagogues in and out of Congress have been getting every year more and more into the habit of pushing their own ends by denunciations of England and the encouragement of hostility to her, in order to catch the Irish vote. In 1884 there is little question that James G. Blaine would have been overwhelmingly defeated in this State but for his success in securing the support of the Irish, who deal with all American questions from the Irish standpoint. They voted for Blaine because they believed, and he meant them to believe, that if he was President, he would inaugurate in the administration of foreign affairs a policy of hostility and annoyance to Great Britain. Should Gladstone fail now in his great attempt to heal Irish discontent, we shall probably witness the same sort of phenomenon in 1888. Should he succeed, he will do almost as much for the purification of our politics as for that of the politics of his own country.

CONGRESS AND THE UNION PACIFIC RAILWAY.

The House Committee on Pacific Railroads have under consideration a resolution ordering an investigation of the affairs of the Union Pacific Railway Company, with a view to discovering whether that corporation has not, by means of dishonest bookkeeping, falsified accounts, and various fraudulent transactions, cheated the Government of large sums which properly belong to the sinking fund established by the Thurman Act. The resolution was introduced by Mr. Henley of California, but is said to have been drawn by an ex-clerk in the office of the Railroad Commissioner, who was found to be using his official position for stock-jobbing purposes and was dismissed in consequence. The terms in which it is drawn, the time and the manner of its introduction, leave no doubt as to its object. It is simply to affect the stock in the interests of speculators. Though not generally known elsewhere, it is notorious in Washington, that certain well-known bear operators in the stocks of the Pacific roads keep a permanent lobby at the capital, whose sole occupation it is to devise schemes to weaken the credit and depress the stock of these corporations by threatened legislation or action of the departments. The original plan of the operators, upon the accession of the present Administration, was to secure the appointment of two of their agents as Government Direc-

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tors of the Union Pacific. This failing, they succeeded in getting one of them into a confidential position in the Commissioner's office, where there were abundant opportunities for usefulness. His career was cut short by his too great zeal and too little discretion.

The lobby are now working the Railroad Committee of the House, and the Henley resolution is one of its instrumentalities. The method of attacking the credit of the company by ordering an investigation is somewhat ingenious. A funding bill is now pending in the Senate by the terms of which the relations between the Government and the Pacific roads are established upon a permanent basis, upon a plan of fixed semi-annual payments, which will extinguish the debt at the end of eighty years. It increases the present security for the subsidy debt by including all the company's property in its branch lines in the mortgage, and provides that the whole debt shall become due and payable upon default of a semi-annual payment. It has been reported favorably by the Judiciary Committee of the Senate. Its general plan is favored by the Interior Department, and it is understood that a sub-committee of the House Committee on Pacific Railroads is preparing a similar bill. The passage of such a bill would make an end of all the vexed questions concerning "net earnings" arising under the Thurman Act, would do away with the hardship now borne by the companies of being compelled to invest their surplus in a sinking fund producing a little over 2 per cent., and, what is perhaps more important, would remove from needy Congressmen the temptation to speculate in stocks whose prices are so easily affected by legislation.

It is to arrest the progress of this bill that the stock jobbers propose an investigation. The suggestion naturally commends itself to the Congressional mind. It means for the investigators free railroad transportation to the Pacific Coast, and plenty of entertainment. The railroad companies cannot object to being investigated without exposing themselves to suspicion. But the public is not a fool after all. It discerns the purpose of these schemes pretty clearly. The ostensible object of the investigation is to find out whether the Union Pacific is not, by some crookedness of bookkeeping, or technical subterfuge, avoiding its obligations to the Government. Briefly stated, it is the old question of definition of "net earnings"; what are proper deductions to be made from the gross earnings before provision is made for the sinking fund? Now the sinking fund referred to is a confessed failure. Its modification or repeal has been urged over and over by the Railroad Commissioners, Government Directors, and Secretaries of the Treasury and of the Interior. Under the provisions of the Thurman Act the Company gets but a fraction over 2 per cent. for investments on sinking-fund account. It has now over six millions in the fund returning but 2 1-5 per cent. per annum. The demand of the stock jobbers is that the lines be more strictly drawn in the construction of "net earnings" so that more of the Company's surplus shall be diverted to this fund. To what end? To secure the Government debt? Not at all. Why not make an end of all these disputes over "net earnings" by establishing fixed payments extending over a period of years, adapting the requirements to the Company's ability to pay, but strengthening the Government's security for its debt?

This we understand to be the aim and the scope of the funding bill now pending in the Senate. This is what a committee of second-mortgage bondholders, situated as the Government is situated, would do. The payments under the existing law are of uncertain amount, and are embarrassing to the debtor company. The Thurman Act is unscientific. It ought to be superseded by something which shall yield a fixed and known sum to the Government, and shall leave the company free after making these payments to employ its resources as other companies employ theirs, in making needed improvements and extensions of its lines.

THE ILLEGALITY OF BOYCOTTING.

PUBLIC interest in the boycott upon Mrs. Gray's bakery continues to grow. The most noticeable feature of it is the increasing desire to have the instigators of the boycott brought to punishment. It has been pointed out that this could be done through the District Attorney's office, since the boycotters were clearly liable to fine and imprisonment for conspiracy, libel, and blackmail. The law is very clear in making a combination of this kind a conspiracy. A very interesting decision in point was given by the Supreme Court of this State in 1835. Some journeyman shoemakers in Geneva, Ontario County, formed a combination for the purpose of preventing any journeyman shoemakers in that village from making a certain kind of coarse boots for a less price than $1 a pair. Any member of this association who made boots for a less price was to pay a penalty of $10, and all members were pledged to refuse to work for any master shoemaker paying a less price. A shoemaker named Pennock made a pair of boots for an employer named Lum for 75 cents, whereupon all of Lum's workmen left him and refused to return to work until he discharged Pennock, and promised not to employ him again. The District Attorney of Ontario County had several of the members of the Shoemakers' Association indicted for conspiracy to do an act of injury to trade, and, upon a demurrer to the indictment, it was held good by the Supreme Court of the State.

The opinion in the case was given by Chief-Justice Savage, in which he held that a conspiracy of journeyman workmen of any trade or handicraft to raise wages, by entering into combinations to coerce journeymen or master workmen employed in the same trade or business to conform to rules established by such combination for the purpose of regulating the price of labor, and carrying such rules into effect by overt acts, was "an act injurious to trade or commerce," within the meaning of the Revised Statutes, and as such a misdemeanor. The Chief Justice used the following language in the course of his opinion:

"All combinations, therefore, to effect such an object are injurious not only to the individual particularly oppressed, but to the public at large. In the present case an industrious man was driven out of employment by the unlawful measures pursued by the defendants, and an injury done to the community, by diminishing the quantity of productive labor and of internal trade. In so far as the individual sustains an injury, the remedy by indictment is taken away by our revised statutes, and the sufferer is left to his action on the case; but in so far as the public are concerned, in the embarrassment to trade by the discouragement of industry, the defendants are liable to punishment by indictment. If combinations of this description are lawful in Geneva, they are so in every other place. If the bootmakers may say that boots shall not be made for less than $1 per pair, it is optional with them to say that $10 or even $50 shall be paid, and no man can wear a pair of boots without giving such price as the journeyman bootmakers may choose to require. This I apprehend would be a monopoly of the most odious kind. The journeyman mechanics might, by fixing their own wages, regulate the price of all manufactured articles, and the community be enormously taxed. Should the journeyman bakers refuse to work, unless for enormous wages which the master bakers could not afford to pay, and should they compel all the journeymen in the city to stop work, the whole population must be without bread . . . Truth is, that industry requires no such means to support it. Competition is the life of trade. If the defendants cannot make coarse boots for less than $1 per pair, let them refuse to do so; but let them not directly or indirectly undertake to say that others shall not do the work for a less price. It may be that Pennock, from greater industry or greater skill, made more profit by making boots at seventy-five cents per pair than the defendants at $1. He had a right to work for what he pleased. His employer had a right to employ him for such price as they could agree upon. The interference of the defendants was unlawful; its tendency is not only to individual oppression but to public inconvenience and embarrassment."

A few years after this decision the same question came before the Court of Common Pleas, and an elaborate opinion was written by Chief-Justice Daly, in which he differed from the Supreme Court upon the question of the mere association of workmen to increase wages being a misdemeanor, and, after a most elaborate and learned investigation of the law on the subject, stated as the result of his examination "that it is lawful for any number of journeymen or master workmen to agree, on the one part that they will not work below certain rates, or on the other that they will not pay a certain price; but that an association or combination for the purpose of compelling journeymen or employers to conform to any rule, regulation, or agreement fixing the rate of wages to which they are not parties, by the imposition of penalties, by agreeing to quit the service of an employer who employs a journeyman below certain rates, unless the journeyman pays the penalty imposed by the combination, or by menaces, threats, or intimidations, violence, or other unlawful means, is a conspiracy for which the parties entering into it may be indicted."

This view of the law was practically adopted by the Legislature of 1870, when an act was passed providing that the provisions of the statutes regarding conspiracy "shall not be construed in any court in this State to restrict or prohibit the orderly and peaceable assembling or coöperation of persons employed in any profession, trade, or handicraft for the purpose of securing an advance in the rate of wages or compensation, or for the maintenance of such rate." The principle

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as thus modified has been uniformly maintained by the courts in several cases, and the general doctrine established that any agreement or conspiracy to commit an act injurious to trade is illegal. Upon the enactment of the Penal Code in 1881 the definition of conspiracy was enlarged, and a new provision was inserted declaring it a misdemeanor for two or more persons to conspire—

"5. To prevent another from exercising a lawful trade or calling, or doing any other lawful act, by force, threats, intimidation, or by interfering or threatening to interfere with tools, implements, or property belonging to or used by another, or with the use or employment thereof."

The provisions of the statute of 1870, in regard to peaceable and orderly combinations, quoted by us above, were at the same time added to the Penal Code, where they stand as section 170. Together they make the law so clear that there can be no misunderstanding it. There is not the slightest doubt that the use of the boycott as an aid in a strike is a conspiracy against trade, and punishable by fine and imprisonment. Mrs. Gray's case has excited widespread interest and indignation because the victim is a woman; but otherwise the boycott upon her bakery does not differ from that used in thousands of other cases. Her case is likely to be of great value in arousing public indignation against boycotts of all kinds, and in awakening the officers of the law to their duty of promptly bringing the perpetrators of them to punishment.

BIRD SLAUGHTER.

SOME seven years ago there appeared in Paris at a ball of the *demi-monde* a woman wearing on her head-dress a dead bird. The bird had artificial eyes, and its wings and tail were spread out so as to give it a life-like appearance. It was a small, stuffed bird, not a bird-skin stretched on wires. Its introduction as an ornament in fashionable bad society was not received with much favor at first, although the wearer succeeded in attracting attention to herself by the singularity of her adornment. This was all that she desired or intended to accomplish by fastening a bird's corpse to her head-gear. She had not the smallest expectation that she would be imitated, even by her immediate companions, still less that the whole world of fashionable good society in France, England, and America would "fall into line" at her heels. Probably her only thought was that the oddity of her costume would serve as a striking advertisement, like "S. T., 1860, X.," and cause her to be talked of among the males and females of her kind.

Strange indeed are the caprices of fashion. Seven years have passed by, and we find the eccentricity of a woman of the town become the craze of millinery—so great and deadly a craze that State Legislatures are considering bills to prevent the extinction of our song birds, and of all birds not too large to be worn on the bonnets of women and children. Nothing more revolting to good taste can be imagined than the "remains" of an animal fresh from the dissection of a taxidermist as an ornament to a woman's forehead. The very suggestion ought to excite horror and disgust, as well as pity for the slaughtered songsters of the grove. But the instincts of refined taste and the promptings of humane feeling are alike crushed by the Juggernaut of fashion. The appeals of naturalists and the sarcasms of the press are alike unavailing to suppress or even lessen the massacre of the innocents. The destruction goes on at a rate limited only by the number of birds within reach of the sportsmen's guns and nets. Seventy thousand corpses of the white curlew were delivered in New York in four months' time. They have almost disappeared from our coasts. Linnets, bluebirds, orioles, woodpeckers, snowbirds, song-sparrows, indeed everything that has feathers and is not too large a load to be carried on one's head, is coming to the shambles of millinery. As the smaller varieties become scarce the larger ones are taken and cut in pieces, their heads going to one style of head-dress and their wings and tails to another. But no one can tell how large a bird can be worn on a woman's head by walking on Fifth Avenue. It is necessary to take a ride in a Second Avenue car to get the full effect of the prevailing fashion. There one may see on the headgear of poorer classes, and especially of colored women, every species of the feathered kingdom smaller than a prairie chicken or a canvasback duck, and every color of the rainbow.

The public are beginning to realize that there is danger of the total destruction of small birds to satisfy the demands of an odious trade founded upon a worse than barbarous fashion. The barbarian carries dead animals on his person as charms against the powers of darkness, but not for purposes of adornment. If any daring traveller had found among the bushmen of Australia, or the savages of Africa, a people wearing dead humming birds for earrings or dead rats for necklaces, the discovery would have stirred commercial and philanthropic zeal among civilized nations to supply them with suitable beads and brass ornaments to take the place of such heathenish attire. Yet the composing of a circlet for a young girl's brow from the heads of twenty bobolinks, woodpeckers, wrens, kingfishers, and other decapitated beauties of the forest and the seashore—a sight beheld by a correspondent of the *Evening Post* at the Academy of Design last week—is hardly to be distinguished in point of good taste from the wearing of humming-birds as pendants to the ear or small rodents to adorn the neck. In this case it is evident that the object was to get as many different insignia of bird slaughter crowded into one place as possible.

There is a bill pending at Albany to prohibit the killing of certain species of harmless birds. It ought to prohibit not only the killing but the traffic in birds of this class, and authorize the seizure and destruction of the same after a reasonable time sufficient to give all people warning, and to enable those who have money invested in them to get rid of their stock. Our game laws prohibit the killing of certain kinds of birds at certain seasons, and in order to make the prohibition effectual they prohibit the having of them at such times. Possession of the prohibited thing is itself a misdemeanor, and rightly so. The object of these laws is to preserve the species from extinction, so that the generations who come after us shall not be deprived of a valuable birthright through our negligence. Societies of ladies have been formed in England to discourage the practice of wearing birds on the head. Mrs. Celia Thaxter proposes, in the *Evening Transcript*, that a similar society be formed in Boston. But it may be doubted whether a fashion, however opposed to good taste, can be frowned down. If our birds are to be saved, public authority must come to the assistance of private effort. Societies for the suppression of bird slaughter will be useful and effectual, however, in aid of the law, or to promote its enactment and enforcement.

A FRENCH MEMOIR OF OUR COLONIAL HISTORY.

THE National Library of Paris has lately received a curious acquisition in a manuscript work entitled 'Voyage au Canada dans le Nord de l'Amérique Septentrionale fait depuis l'an 1751 à 1761, par T. C. B.' The author, when very young and at his wits' end for a living, took an opportunity which was offered him of going to Canada, and there enlisted in the *troupes de la marine*, which composed the standing military force of the colony. As his education was much above his new position, he sometimes acted as secretary to his commanding officer, and was at length made storekeeper at Fort Duquesne, where, as he ingenuously remarks, there were good opportunities of making money without much risk. It was a time when the storekeeper of a military outpost in Canada rarely failed to make a modest competence at the expense of the King. "T. C. B." found himself at the end of the war in possession of something more than 80,000 francs, nearly all of which melted into nothing through the depreciation of Canadian paper money.

His book would be more valuable if it were less ambitious. He says that he made notes of what he saw in Canada, from which, many years afterwards, he wrote his story; but these notes must have been of the most imperfect kind. An exact copy of the whole work is before me. It forms 428 pages of manuscript, including a preface, an index, and a long treatise on the Indians. In short, it is a book prepared for the press, though it was never printed. "T. C. B." would have done well if he had contented himself with relating his own experience, instead of undertaking to recount the whole course of the war. He did not write his book till thirty or forty years after his return to France, and his memory, in spite of the notes which he says that he kept, often plays him strange tricks. Thus, he puts the defeat of Braddock in 1756 and the removal of the Acadians in 1754, though they both occurred in 1755; and he makes the capture of Fort William Henry and the defeat of Abercrombie occur in the same summer. His account of the Indians and his long descriptions of the animals of the country are very inexact. According to him, the Canadian porcupine darts its quills at all comers, while the *carcajou*, or wolverine, has a tail several times longer than its body.

During the winter of 1758 and 1759 he returned to Quebec with pockets full of paper money from his lucrative service at Fort Duquesne, and engaged himself in marriage to a young woman of the city, hired a house, furnished it at the cost of 10,000 francs, and somewhat prematurely installed in it his intended bride and mother-in-law; after which he changed his mind and broke off the match, assigning no reason to his readers.

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or to his betrothed, whose disappointed parent gave him great trouble before he could dispossess her of the house and furniture. Resuming his military life, he was captured in the summer of 1760 and sent prisoner to New York. His account of that place and what befell him there is interesting and curious. Being sent to France with other prisoners, he rejoined his family, and, at length, growing old, put his story upon record, apparently about the end of the last century. As historical evidence the value of his work is small. Even in the events of which he was himself a part his memory is often at fault, and where he tells of what he did not see, his story is worthless. Even in his own reminiscences men and events are sometimes confused by the lapse of time.

His first military experience was on the expedition sent by the Marquis Duquesne in 1753 to occupy the Upper Ohio. He accompanied the party, however, no further than Presquile, having been sent with a detachment to Detroit and Lake Huron. In the next year he was one of the party that drove Ensign Ward from the forks of the Ohio and built Fort Duquesne. He was at this place when Jumonville was killed and his men captured by Washington, but he adds very little to what is known of that affair, except some particulars about the Canadian who escaped the fate of the rest. He was also one of the force under Villiers who defeated Washington at Fort Necessity. His account answers pretty well to the French contemporary reports, none of which, however, give the number of Indians who accompanied the expedition. This "T. C. B." puts at three hundred, which, if true, makes the total French force upwards of nine hundred, against about three hundred and fifty under Washington.

He gives a horribly minute account of the torture of English prisoners by the Indians at Fort Duquesne in the summer of 1755. He was present at the scene, which seems to have left an indelible impression upon him. He not only puts the defeat of Braddock in the wrong year, but his account of it is extremely short and unsatisfactory, adding nothing to what is already known, though he says that he took part in it. He seems impartial in his mistakes, which sometimes tell against his own countrymen. Thus, he declares that at the battle of Lake George the whole French force was killed or taken, while in fact the greater part escaped. His ambition to make a book has led him to sacrifice rare opportunities of leaving behind him a record of personal observations which might have been of great interest and value. He apologizes for having so much to say about what he himself saw and did, but his real fault is in adding anything else. F. PARKMAN.

THE STRIKE IN THE SOUTHWEST.

ST. LOUIS, April 1, 1886.

THE strike which has now been prevailing in the Southwest system of railroads, commonly called the Gould system, for nearly four weeks, has brought to the surface so many features of economic, social, and governmental import, that a critical review may not be out of place. The public has been fairly well informed of the incipiency and progress of this remarkable upheaval; but the coloring given to it by the press, and by associated and private despatches in different sections of the country, has had a tendency to hide from the outside public many of the local features to which attention must be given in order to understand its origin, rise, and inevitable consequences.

To begin with, the country should understand that this was not a strike. It had neither the meaning nor the dignity attached to that word. Webster defines the word strike to mean, "to quit work in order to compel an increase or prevent a reduction of wages." Neither of these elements had anything to do with this quasi-revolutionary movement. It was a *boycott*, pure and unadulterated, with no element of a reasonable or even alleged cause for a strike, on the above accepted definition, in it.

The public generally accepts the term of boycott to be a sort of a good-natured and not unlawful method of applying the screws to a refractory employer. Such may have been the intention of the originators of this method, but, as at present applied, it forbodes incalculable mischief. It partakes more of the nature of the "lettres de cachet," the papal bulls of excommunication, the Vehmgericht, or the Spanish Inquisition; it is, in fact, a revival of the cruel and relentless practices of the Middle Ages.

When a boycott is decreed, it is directed against every man, woman, or child, against every firm, corporation, or individual, against everybody who—directly or indirectly, whether for profit or love, whether his life or his health or that of his wife and children depended on it, whether he or they were sick, suffering or starving, whether impelled thereto by ties of friendship, of gratitude, or humanity—helped, aided, worked for, or in any way assisted the person, corporation, or institution which had incurred the displeasure of and been declared to be under the ban by a chartered lodge; and to abide by this order when given, all Knights of Labor are solemnly sworn.

Tracing the history of this strike, it will be seen that this was the course it took. A railroad in Texas discharged one of its employees. It is irrelevant for our purpose to argue for what reason; it is only relevant to know that he belonged to the order of the Knights of Labor. The Knights demanded his reinstatement, which the managers refused. Thereupon a strike on that line, which covered nearly the entire State of Texas, was ordered. Within twenty-four hours after, it became apparent that this mode of coercion did not bring about the reinstatement of the discharged man, and the bull of excommunication was decreed over another road, the Missouri-Pacific. Ostensibly the laws were to be respected, but in fact no law was to stand in the way of preventing the excommunicated road from being operated; and violence, destruction, and panic were to, and did, follow in the wake of the Knights' secret order.

St. Louis being the key of the situation, and the chief offices of the road as well as of the Knights being located here, this city became the main point of attack. It is needless to describe the open acts of violence that were committed—they are matters of history; but the secret and invisible acts of terrorism are not. The thousands of employees who were serving the company, directly or indirectly, from the best paid artisan down to the day-laborer and the poor women who scrub the cars, were waited upon by a "committee" and "requested" to stop work instanter. Generally they were served with a written notice, reading as follows:

"You are requested not to . . . work in the shop . . . repair tracks . . . take out an engine, etc., etc., from and after — o'cl. this day. By order of the
{ Seal of Knights of Labor. } EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE."

It will be observed that the word "requested" only is used, designedly for the purpose of serving as a cloak to the boast that the Knights never used violence; but there is a terrible meaning attached to the word "request," which every laboring and working man in the country now understands. It means that whoever does not heed that request may consider himself outlawed; that when going to or returning from his work he will be hooted, hissed, and spat upon; that he will be beaten, his wife and children insulted, his tradesmen forbidden to sell him goods, his landlord ordered to oust him from his home. All his social relations will be cut off, and he will become the Ahasuerus of his tribe. No wonder that the most loyal and the stoutest among them give up their manhood rather than incur the consequences of such demoniac persecutions.

To continue my history: The Missouri-Pacific boycott not producing the desired result, it was extended over the St. Louis bridge, with its vast organization and hundreds of employees, and later on over East St. Louis and the dozen railroad lines terminating there as the outlets of some of the most important trunk lines. The strikers there outvied the St. Louis mob. Under the guidance of the Knights all avenues of trade and industry were closed. The St. Louis Transfer Company, which owns several hundred teams, had to suspend operations. Its teamsters were "requested" to quit, and quit they did. They were all loyal to their employers, were poor, needy, hard-working men, and they met afterwards among themselves and published a protest in the papers against this unwarranted interference, but they dared not to ignore the "request." Other teams, belonging to private parties, endeavoring to haul goods to and from East St. Louis, were ordered back, and nothing was permitted to be touched. Railroads trying to move trains had their engines killed and disabled and their trainmen beaten and insulted. Perishable goods had to be left to rot and spoil. Thousands of tons of coal from Illinois, on which St. Louis depends for its supply, were standing in the railroad yards, but not a bushel was permitted to be moved. Presently the coal famine made itself felt in St. Louis. One factory after another had to let its fires go out. The great flour industries of St. Louis had stopped some time before, because they could get no grain in and could ship no flour out. Thousands of employees, mostly of the poorest class, had to be discharged. The price of coal rose from the average of seven cents per bushel or $5.50 per ton to fifty cents or $40 per ton. Provisions rose enormously. The army of teamsters who make their living by hauling goods to and from East St. Louis not only were forced into idleness, but had to pay enormous prices for feed for their horses who were idle in the stables. How the poor fared may be imagined.

The East St. Louis strike was confessedly ordered without cause or grievance. The Chairman of the Assembly of Knights which ordered it, Sullivan by name, openly stated that it was done only "to help their brethren" in Missouri.

It would draw this letter to undue length to dwell upon the vain efforts of the railroads and the public to obtain protection or enforcement of the law from either the city authorities of East St. Louis, the Sheriff of the county, or the Governor of the State. Suffice it to say that the apathy of the officers in connection with the approaching April elections had an unmistakable significance.

But let us return to Missouri. During all this time, while these acts of violence were going on, not a word was said about wages, not a single grievance was presented. It is true that the leader, Irons, issued a pronunciamiento, red-hot and flaming, in which the bloated bondholders, the millionaires, the stock-watering and Wall-Street gamblers were denounced as being at the bottom of the strike, and incidentally saying that the Missouri-Pacific should pay its bridge mechanics and its shop apprentices higher wages; but this was issued two weeks after the strike—it was "post hoc" and not "propter hoc."

Many of the men ordered out were of the best-paid, the best-contented employees, had their own homes and brought up their families in a

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respectable way. They belonged to the best type of the industrial class. I know many of them who are gentlemanly, intelligent, and good citizens. They joined the order of Knights of Labor at its early inception, when its aims and methods were such as every well-wisher of humanity could endorse. They are of the type which Mr. Powderly represents. Now they feel and see with dismay that it has grown beyond controllable limits, hydra-headed, with venom in its fangs. But they see no escape outside of revolt, and revolt means boycott, and boycott means the consequences which I have outlined above.

Finally, when the leaders saw that they had no ground to stand upon, they proclaimed that all they wanted was "recognition." In plain English, it meant that they should be recognized as a state within the State, as a power subject to no control and to no established tribunal, as the dictator to decree, for reasons satisfactory only to themselves, that the people shall neither buy from nor sell to, neither trade nor contract nor have any commercial or other intercourse with, anybody who has incurred their displeasure or ignored their demands. The calamitous results to the individual, to the community, to innocent thousands, to the people of the States, nay, to the entire nation, count for nothing, so that their power to avenge the real or alleged wrong to an individual or the alleged violation of their orders is "recognized." That such a recognition means the surrender of manhood, of all liberty of action, of all democracy; that it must be a barrier to all civilization and progress, never enters the minds of these fanatics.

I will not attempt in this letter to present a history of this tremendous movement, its labor side and its railroad side. In fact, the end is not yet. I have only endeavored truthfully to portray its results and its possibilities, in order that your readers may know what may be in store for them, anywhere and everywhere, and at any time, and that they may take warning. This issue will have to be met by the people of the country sooner or later, and it may be a blessing to those not affected by the events of the last few weeks, that its monstrosity has been uncovered. Nor is there meant to be in this warning any offence or opposition to organized labor. The Inquisition was no more of the essence of the Catholic religion, or the burning of witches of the Protestant religion, than the enormous practices and doctrines of the Knights which I have described are of the essence of protected labor.

THE TRIAL OF THE PEASANT REBELS.

VENICE, March 27, 1886.

"NOT guilty," say the jury; "Not guilty," shout the people stived like herrings in the court; "Not guilty," repeat the anxious crowd without, passing the glad news from bridge to bridge, from gondola to gondola, till it echoes from the lagoon to the Lido, while the telegraph carries it from the tombs of the martyrs in San Michele to those of Belfiore, and Mantua responds, "Viva Venezia! Viva la libertà! Viva la fratellanza! Welcome home to our innocent and calumniated peasants!" This is the result of the attempt made by the Government to secure a verdict against the peasants of whose "rebellion" I wrote to you in February, by translating them from their natural judges in the Mantuan province to the assizes in Venice. In this hope, manacled and escorted by carbineers and a strong body of police, nineteen citizens, ill and emaciated by a year's previous confinement, were transported from Brescia to the prison palace three centuries old, in nothing changed since Byron

"—stood in Venice on the Bridge of Sighs,"

looking here to the Ducal Palace, there to the palace of the prisons. The vaunted progress of the nineteenth century has not changed a bar or a stone in the old prisons of the *Serenissima;* only the *Pozzi*, on a level with the water, and the *Piombi*, under the roof, are no longer used. Nothing has been altered in the dark, damp cells, deprived of light and air; and whereas in Mantua the prisoners were allowed an hour's walk each day, here they have been denied this privilege, permitted only to the condemned, because all communication between these supposed delinquents was forbidden. Each day since the 16th of February, when the trial commenced, they have been transported in the old prison gondola from the Riva degli Schiavoni to the Court of the Assizes, where, in a strong iron cage guarded by carbineers, seventeen have been exposed to the public gaze; two, admitted to bail, left outside, and free.

The counsel for the accused, resolving itself into the "college for the defence," is composed of advocates from the principal cities of northern Italy, members of Parliament, professors of the universities of Pavia, of Siena, and the greatest of all Italian jurisconsults and pleaders, Ceneri, the Professor of Law in the University of Bologna. The President, Cavaliere Scariensi, and the Judges, De Poli and Grasselli, and the Public Minister, have from first to last maintained strict impartiality. Without browbeating or pressure, the defenders have elicited from willing and unwilling witnesses such stories of misery and suffering endured, of oppression unresisted, of deliberate cruelty inflicted and unavenged, as Ireland cannot outrival, and by the same process they have proved most of the accused to be patriots who have exposed their lives for their country, citizens who have upheld and even administered law and maintained order in their respective communes. Siliprandi, for example, has been through all the campaigns for Italian independence from 1848 to 1870, gaining six medals for military valor, and is now a retired captain with a pension derived from the medals. Sartori served in the army, was an artillery officer up to 1870, is knight of the *Corona d'Italia*. None of the accused have ever been condemned by a criminal court, but several of them for press offences. All the accusations formulated against them of conspiracy against property and proprietors, of fomenting strikes, of intimidating such of the peasants as declined to sign a demand for fixed wages, have fallen to the ground. The "inflammatory publications" are proved to be "honest and moral in their tendencies," such as the 'Doveri degli Uomini' of Mazzini, and 'La Storia del Contadino,' a really well-written historical narrative of the Italian peasantry from the days of Rome to our own time, while the "statutes of the Anarchical Society of Viadana" would be rejected by any peasants out of Italy as drawn up in the interest of proprietors. Most of the articles written by Siliprandi end with the words *Calm* and *Solidarity;* most of the letters sequestrated are appeals to members of Parliament and well-wishers to the working classes, such as Professor Bovio, Senator Guerrieri Gonzago, inviting them to come and "enlighten the peasants as to the best methods of ameliorating their wretched condition."

More than once the college of defence voted thanks to the president for the ample liberty of speech allowed to the accused during the interrogations. An inspector of the police bore witness to the excellent character of several of the accused; other policemen admitted that they had arrested numbers of persons without any mandate; some even confessed that they had entrapped the men and then imprisoned them by surprise. If we except some well-known landed proprietors, who affirmed without any proof that the peasants were leaguing to get the land into their own hands, no single accusation has been proved. Deputy Panizza, a Mantuan, at one time parish doctor of three districts, affirmed that the proprietors, while exhausting the physical strength of the peasants by exacting twelve and fourteen hours' work in the broiling sun, denied them sufficient even of the coarsest food, or the money wherewith to purchase it, to restore their exhausted frames. He denied the existence of any secret conspiracy, and affirmed that the rumors spread by the papers of vineyards cut down, of incendiary fires, were utterly false. Deputy Fabbrici, also of Mantua, declared that the wages of the peasants were insufficient to keep them alive; that this justified their combining to secure an increase, but that in the organization of the society no idea of sedition entered. Cadenazzi, also a Mantuan deputy, a noted advocate and a man of order, had examined all the tariffs proposed; some were absurdly low, others were exaggerated, but no disorders had occurred. Not a single fact alleged could be proved, he added. The *Gazzetta di Mantova*, in announcing with terror that the socialist deputy, Costa, was coming to organize a rebellion of the peasants, had confounded him with Costa the sculptor, who was coming to Mantua to concert with the municipality for a monument to Garibaldi! An immense sensation was created by the deposition of Dr. Achille Sacchi, Garibaldi's "fighting doctor," now director of the Mantuan asylum, where by far the greater number of the wretched denizens are peasants gone mad from *pellagra*. His picture of the Mantuan peasantry was sad indeed—the property in the hands of few, *who do not live on the soil*, immense *latifondi;* comparatively few peasant families housed and engaged by the year, hence a superabundance of day laborers so badly remunerated that a robust peasant can scarcely secure food for himself, and when he divides it with wife and children all verge on starvation. *Pellagra*, Dr. Sacchi affirms, is a direct consequence of these causes; in the towns, soup kitchens have done something to diminish this scourge, but the condition of the surrounding peasantry daily deteriorates. In short, by the time that the case for the accusation was closed, it seemed as though the proprietors and not the peasants were on trial.

The arrests in the commencement were 200. Gradually, throughout the year, relay after relay were set at liberty, until, as we have seen, the prisoners dwindled down to 19. When, after thirty-seven days, the public minister harangued the jury, it became more than ever apparent that he had no case to lay before them. He himself absolved the "Society of Viadana," denounced as a promoter of disorder; paid tribute to the patriotic merits of Siliprandi, but feared "that he had substituted the red flag for that under which he had fought his country's battles"; professed his *belief* that to the constitution of the society of the peasants must be attributed the discontent of the Mantuan provinces; dwelt fully on the assertion of the great landed proprietor, D'Arco, that Mantua was on the verge of civil war; withdrew all accusations against six of the accused, and finished up with an appeal to the impartiality of the jury. The counsel of defence divided their labors admirably. Prof. Ceneri's eloquent discourse was "an act of accusation" against the Government. He dwelt forcibly on the abuses of the police, connived at by the magistrates—mandates of arrest being left in blank for the police to fill up with what names they chose; on the insult and maltreatment of respectable citizens, the refusal of doctors to the prisoners when sick, the atrocious persecutions against the families of the arrested. Truly, he said, we are worthy missionaries of civilization to the Africans! One by one he disposed of the general accusations, then one by one proved the lawful deeds and virtuous intentions of the accused.

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He affirmed that strikes are no longer punishable by law, that the condition of the Mantuan peasants justified and justifies such strikes, and, certain that the jury would absolve his "estimable friends" the accused, he sat down amid deafening applause which the president strove in vain to quell.

While I write, the liberated victims, borne in triumph by the populace, who occupied the entire space between the court of the assizes and the Ponte di Rialto, pale, trembling, and dazed by the air and light which for the last year has been denied them, grateful for the affectionate sympathy shown to them by the Venetians, are preparing to return to Mantua, to their desolate families, and, alas! in many cases to their barren hearths. Has any Government ever received a severer sentence or a more deserved castigation? Nor is this the first since I last wrote to you; the "republicans" whose trial had just then commenced, though they had declared that Italy had been brought to such a pass of slavery, corruption, immorality, and misery that they had set themselves to bring about a republic, were also absolved by a Roman jury. On the other hand, Cotta Ramusino (the friend of Depretis), the fraudulent bankrupt absolved by corrupt judges, was, on a new trial claimed by the sufferers, condemned to five years' imprisonment and a heavy fine.

At the present moment a rumor is afloat that Leo XIII. intends to withdraw the veto: "Neither electors or elected," at least for the old sub-Alpine provinces, and for Lombardy and Venice ceded by Austria to Italy by treaty. If this be so, the Catholics in the other provinces will take French leave, and though, as I have said before, the Catholics for the greater part do now vote under the rose, and their voting as a body will not greatly increase the aggregate number of electors by sending up Catholic Conservatives to Parliament, they would create a party round which non-Catholic Conservatives would rally, and for once we should see a Conservative party and a Liberal Opposition. The Liberals must then have a programme of their own, and in this case there may be yet a chance for representative institutions in Italy. Nothing, in my opinion, could be worse for the country than a political-social revolution with finances in their present state, commercial and industrial depression, agrarian misery and discontent, whose manifestation will be increased by the verdict of to-day, deepening daily. In England and America and now in France discontent comes to the surface and appears even greater than it is; here it is suppressed, stifled, and earthed over; hence it takes daily deeper and wider hold of the soil; should it burst out suddenly and at different points the conflagration will be fearful. We have barely escaped a general strike of the railway servants, and even this, I fear, is postponed rather than subdued.

J. W. M.

Correspondence.

SIR HENRY MAINE AND THE PATRIARCHAL THEORY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The review of Sir Henry Maine's 'Popular Government' in last week's *Nation* called to mind the regret which I felt—and, I think, a good many others also—when it was first announced that he had in preparation a book on a subject so remote from that in connection with which his earlier reputation was made. This was not at all because 'Popular Government' or 'Democracy' is not a theme of contemporary human interest, or because it is not helpful to have his views on this as well as on the other things about which he has written. But in the first place, his earlier works have developed a popular interest in the study of primitive institutions which it seems his duty to satisfy and direct. And in the second place, there is so much need for a scientific restatement of the patriarchal theory that one would be glad to have its author sum up his side of the case, now, when there has been at least enough testimony produced against him to make it clear that an intelligent jury will not give him a verdict without leaving their seats.

There is nothing presumptuous, I am satisfied, in saying that the criticism made by the various disciples of the anthropological school is, in a fair view, destructive of the picture which one gets of the development of primitive society from reading the 'Ancient Law' and the 'Early History of Institutions.' This, of course, is no new discovery, but the well-founded opinion, I take it, of every careful student of sociology. The influence of the "patriarchal theory" on contemporary thought, however, has been too profound to warrant hasty conclusions as to its general worth from what may be nothing more than a fault of presentation. The patriarchal theory has surely a permanent place in science, if not in the form under which Sir Henry Maine has already given it to us, then in some other form. But the duty of showing that it is elastic enough to readjust itself against the attacks which are made on it, rests with its advocates. I cannot find that Sir Henry Maine himself has attempted this. Where he has undertaken a reply to the strictures of his critics, as in some of the chapters of the volume on 'Early Law and Custom,' he has contented himself with presenting the difficulties which stand in the way of accepting the generalizations offered as a substitute for his own. This, however, is not a hard task. The most enthusiastic follower of McLennan or Morgan will hesitate to claim that their speculations have the highest constructive value. They help to supply the material for an ultimate theory of the development of society rather than a satisfactory theory itself. But at the same time they bring to clear view problem after problem which cannot be solved by any formula printed in the works of Sir Henry Maine.

Now there naturally suggest themselves to every one who studies the subject with any interest, various modifications or limitations of the patriarchal theory which will bring it into the current of this other thought. I, for example, have at times counted it quite likely that the theory shall be ultimately acknowledged to have no application at all to sociology, but to belong exclusively to the history of law. Here it may be treated as a belief, having all the influence on the development of Roman law of a fact, just as various theological delusions have shaped human thought and conduct in spite of their intrinsic worthlessness. This, of course, is a very radical view, but it suggests the extreme necessity which exists for one in authority to advance something less destructive. The logical result of the sort of warfare thus far waged between the two schools is to put the mind of the student in a position of uncertainty which is very proper in discussions about the beginnings of things. If this condition of intelligent agnosticism were general, one would have no reason to be apprehensive. But the singular fascination of Sir Henry Maine's literary style has given his views a currency which seems to me extremely inimical to scientific thinking. This appears both in deliberate written rehearsals of his ideas and in popular thought on the questions which he has discussed.

Professor Hearn, for example, in his work on the 'Aryan Household,' undertakes, in behalf of the patriarchal theory, to eliminate some of the difficulties suggested by the anthropological school. He proposes to this end to consider in his book the structure of an Aryan family only, without regard to the family organization as seen in other races. The reason for this exclusion is obvious. No small part of the problems incapable of solution, as we have said, by the method of Sir Henry Maine come from the history of peoples lower in the social scale than were any of the Indo-European races when we first have knowledge of them. There is nothing at all open to criticism in this proposition of Professor Hearn's. As he himself puts it, there is enough in the story of the Aryan household to fill a volume without any mention of the households of other races. One can, even in these days, write a Latin grammar without at the same time writing a comparative grammar. But it surely would be quite out of the question for the Latin grammarian who had no knowledge of Greek and Sanskrit, or who avowedly excluded them from consideration, to undertake confident generalizations in Latin historical syntax. And if he did attempt such generalizations, it would only be by chance if they failed in many cases of being monstrous. But it is a precisely parallel course which this disciple of Sir Henry Maine takes. He deliberately omits from his data whatever would belie his conclusions, and then declares with confidence that the *gens* in its historical origin was not a subdivision of the Horde nor an artificial union of families, but a natural aggregation of kinsmen held together by the ties of blood and such other bonds as were taken to be evidences of relationship in primitive society. I do not here dispute at all the accuracy of this definition. The clan may or may not have been based on kinship. But I claim that it is utterly unscientific to leave unexplored the annals of many peoples which are filled with facts apparently inconsistent with this view, and to found such a generalization on the social history of only a few races, and those, too, in a comparatively advanced stage of civilization.

But this sovereign disregard for the value of rebutting evidence is of course still more characteristic of the average unprofessional advocate of the patriarchal theory. I actually heard a scholar of no small attainments seriously state, not long since, that modern science had not brought to light a social custom which did not help to establish the truth of the notion that the typical clan was a natural union of kinsmen; and, by way of illustration, he showed how difficult it was for McLennan or Morgan to account at all for the origin of exogamy, but how simple was the explanation if you assumed that the clan was in the beginning a family. Its members then, of course, took wives, not from among their sisters, but from among the members of neighboring families. When all these families enlarged into clans, their members, without reason, continued the custom of their fathers, and the strange rule of marriage without the clan was made as imperative as that of marriage without the family had been. This seems to me a delicious example of history run mad—a remarkable revival of the etiological-myth method of Blackstone, long since abandoned. Nor is there anything unfair in holding the patriarchal theory at least partially responsible for such aberrations. Its advocates have to resort to some sort of juggling when they undertake to reconcile it, in its present shape, with the revelations of careful sociological investigation.

Ambrose Tighe.

St. Paul, Minn., April 3, 1886.

ACCURACY OF TRANSLATION AGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The praises bestowed the other day in the *Nation* on Mrs. Ward's translation of Amiel's

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'Journal' induce me to point out a few of the exceptions which may be taken to such favorable criticism, though I should agree with your reviewer so far as to think this translation better than most translations.

Setting aside consideration of the quality of *expansion*—to which Mrs. Ward confesses in her preface, and which most of us must think a mistake—it may be observed that there is frequently a lack of *exquisiteness* in the rendering of the thought: its shades are not conveyed. An illustration, with comments, will better define my meaning than any amount of assertion; and a very unimportant passage, which I have by accident just been led to compare with the original, may serve my purpose as well as any:

"Nuit superbe. Firmament étoilé, causerie de Jupiter et de Phébé en face de mes fenêtres. Effets grandioses de ténèbres et de rayons dans mon préau calviniste. Une sonate remontait du gouffre noir comme une prière de repentir s'échappant du lieu des supplices. Le pittoresque se fondait en poésie, et l'admiration en emotion."

"A superb night—a starry sky—Jupiter and Phebe holding converse before my windows. Grandiose effects of light and shade over the court-yard. A sonata rose from the black gulf of shadow like a repentant prayer wafted from purgatory. The picturesque was lost in poetry and admiration in feeling."

Now, sentence by sentence: first, why change the original punctuation? Next, "holding converse" is not the equivalent of "causerie," which has a little delicate touch of humor in it. Gods, indeed, would "hold converse," but Jupiter and Phebe that night before his windows were (one might say) "gossiping together." Or, if that be too bold, were they not at least "*idly* conversing"? My next criticism may seem a hypercriticism, but I think it not so. "Ténèbres" is not identical with "ombre," nor "rayons" with "lumière"; and I should be much inclined here to speak of "patches of blackness and shafts of light" over—the courtyard, says Mrs. Ward!!—"in my Calvinistic meadow," wrote Amiel, thereby conveying a thousand suggestions in a phrase. One sees the little grassy field, illuminated with moonlight and rendered unfamiliar by strange shadows, metamorphosed into "grandiosity," yet still "Calvinistic," still in the neighborhood of Geneva, still a droll place for Jupiter and Phebe to loiter in. How much of all this could one get at through Mrs. Ward? To continue: "the black gulf" is precisely as intelligible to an English reader as "le gouffre noir" to a French one—neither more nor less; why add "of shadow"? "S'échappant du lieu des supplices" ("escaping from the place of torments") is terribly weakened in "wafted from purgatory." If Amiel's thought could have been expressed by "purgatory," he himself would have said "le purgatoire"; and if "wafted" had been what he meant, he certainly would *not* have said "s'échappant." Again, he said "the picturesque melted into" (became one with, not "was *lost* in") "poetry, and admiration into emotion" (not "feeling" merely, which is but the cause of emotion. "Émotion" is the English *emotion: feeling* is in French "sentiment").

Very many of Mrs. Ward's pages are open to this sort of fault-finding; but it is not with any sense of special grievance against her that I say this. Rather her work rises enough above the average to be worthy of very careful and thoughtful criticism—of a kind to make evident the low standard now prevailing among translators. There is never an *artist* among them. If only, then, they would content themselves with giving us an honest *photograph!* But they all "touch up" the "negative," and resemblance then—how much is there?

A Lover of Trustworthy Work.

WALDSTEIN'S ART OF PHIDIAS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If you can spare me a little of your valuable space, I should like to express the pleasure I have had in reading your admirable review of Prof. Waldstein's book on the 'Art of Phidias.' Mr. Waldstein is, without doubt, a man of ready and acute perceptions and of a vivid imagination: his inductions are plausible and his generalizations are brilliant, but some of them seem to rest on such meagre foundations that we all must ask for greater caution. You are perfectly right in your treatment of the question of the frieze: it was knowingly put where it could not be well seen, in just the same spirit as the back of the Ilyssus was modelled as carefully as the front, though no human eye should behold it.

But for one thing we should be profoundly grateful to Mr. Waldstein, and that is for calling the seated figures of the Pediment "The Sea and the Land." It is exactly what they are; and how perfectly they express the idea. It is extraordinary that when this had been pointed out it was not at once adopted. The figures are in such attitudes as never would have been chosen except to express something definite and characteristic, and they are not characteristic of any of the personages whose names have been hitherto attached to them. But how perfectly do they express the Sea lying in the lap of the Land—the Land bending over the Sea! These wonderful forms are given a new meaning, and, if possible, an even more attractive beauty than before.—Yours truly,

Geo. C. Lambdin.

Philadelphia, April 5, 1886.

WORK FOR THE KNIGHTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Knights of Labor are wide of the mark in supposing that their action in any way seriously affects Jay Gould. Many families may be pinched, many a scanty score of earnings be exhausted, many local or even national interests may suffer, but Mr. Gould will be in none of these. On the contrary, he needs no better leverage than the present attitude of the strikers gives him. If all the employees on a system of roads can be depended upon to "go out" if one of their number is unjustly discharged, the managers can make more money by causing strikes than by working their roads. They have only to "sell short," unjustly discharge some workman, and provoke a strike, allowing the wrong to be righted and the work to go on only when they have "covered their shorts." A splendid scheme for the unscrupulous capitalist, but does it bring the laborer any proportionate good? The shrewdness that has brought Mr. Gould through so many struggles with organized ability, backed by capital, is little likely to fail him now.

Only one thing can mitigate the evil already incurred, or furnish a safeguard against the accumulation of wealth by dishonest means. No clear-headed laboring man inveighs against wealth fairly acquired. To do so is to cry out against that storage of power which every day shows him is necessary for all great works. It is to condemn in others what he himself, if a prudent man, is trying to do—accumulate his savings. It is wealth dishonestly obtained that hurts the laboring man as it hurts the whole community. It is the immunity and reward given to dishonesty and fraud on a grand scale which presses heavily on the country. If, leaving to peaceful settlement all direct differences between employer and employed, organized labor would turn its attention to securing good government, we should see such changes in the country as no other agency can work. At present Democrats and Republicans struggle for the mastery, and a few thousand dollars from some rich man or corporation easily turn the scale and always debase the office. If the efforts of all labor organizations, independently of party, could be directed to securing just judges, and legislators with intellect and courage and integrity, not only would capital cease to furnish a grievance, but a thousand other abuses and annoyances would disappear. In no other way does a crusade against a manifest wrong seem likely to avail. Here it will surely succeed. B.

THE FRENCH SPOLIATION CLAIMS OF 1831.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Prof. Alexander Johnston's justly valued 'History of the United States' makes a rather remarkable misstatement, to which it seems to me that attention may properly be called.

In speaking of the strained relations with France ensuing upon the treaty of 1831, the author in substance asserts that the claims against France allowed in that treaty originated during the troubles prior to 1801, and that the money paid for their liquidation is still retained by the United States (p. 224).

These statements are quite erroneous, and result from a singular misapprehension on the part of the historian. The claims of 1800 were settled by the Conventions of 1801 and 1803, and the American claimants do still fruitlessly seek relief from their Government. But the claims adjusted in 1831 arose from 1806 to 1811, during the operation of the Berlin and Milan decrees of the Emperor Napoleon; and the money paid by France, some five millions of dollars, was promptly paid over to the creditors when received by the United States.

I will only refer to Charles Sumner's report, 'French Spoliation Claims' (page 39), to the treaties with France and the Treasury documents of 1837. (*Vide* Niles, vol. lii, title, "French Indemnity.") C. M. M.

Madison, Wis., April 7, 1886.

Notes.

A work of obviously great public utility, not confined to the legal profession, is Mr. Frederic J. Stimson's 'American Statute Law,' about to be issued by Charles C. Soule, Boston. It is a systematic comparison and statement "of the laws of all the States on every subject pertaining to the persons and property of citizens." Its value to legislators can hardly be overrated. The prospectus says: "It is surprising to find how few changes are made in substantive law by the annual or biennial legislatures. It has taken a year to pass this volume through the press, and yet the addenda rendered necessary by the new session-laws published during that period cover only two octavo pages." A biennial supplement is contemplated.

The New Church Board of Publication in this city issue a prospectus of the first edition in English of Swedenborg's 'De Anima,' translated and edited by Frank Sewall, A.M.

The full title of the autobiography of C. M. Clay which we announced last week reads: 'The History of his Thirty Years of Contention for Constitutional Liberty and Equal Rights under the Law of All the People of America, as Presented in the Memoirs, Writings, and Speeches of Cassius Marcellus Clay, of Kentucky,' etc. (Cincinnati: J. Fletcher Brennan & Co.). The materials for entertainment and instruction in Mr. Clay's remarkable career are such as ought to make a highly interesting work.

Part of Mr. Clay's reminiscences will be ministerial—from Russia. J. B. Lippincott Co.

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have in press 'Consular Reminiscences,' by G. Henry Horstmann, late United States Consul at Munich and at Nuremberg. Also, 'Transactions and Changes in the Society of Friends,' by Joshua Maule.

Henry Holt & Co. will publish shortly 'The Romance of the Moon,' sixteen pen-and-ink drawings by Mr. J. A. Mitchell, artist-editor of *Life*.

An American edition of George Rae's 'Country Banker: His Clients, Cares, and Work'; and the 'Boat Sailer's Manual,' by Lieut. Edward F. Qualtrough, of the Navy, are promised by Charles Scribner's Sons.

'Thackeray as an Artist,' by James Schönberg, with seven characteristic illustrations after Thackeray, both colored and uncolored, is in the press of William Evarts Benjamin, 744 Broadway.

Roberts Bros. will publish shortly 'Glimpses of Three Coasts,' by the late Helen Hunt Jackson; 'Prince Otto,' by Robert Louis Stevenson; Lord Ronald Gower's 'Last Days of Marie Antoinette,' and 'Golden Mediocrity,' a novel by Mrs. Eugénie Hamerton, wife of the well-known art critic.

D. Lothrop & Co., Boston, announce 'A New Departure for Girls,' by Margaret Sidney; and 'With Reed and Lyre,' by Clinton Scollard.

The late Henry Stevens, according to the *Athenæum*, had in press at the time of his death 'Recollections of Mr. James Lenox, of New York.' It will still be printed, with portraits of author and subject, by Mr. H. N. Stevens, who succeeds to his father's business.

McCarty's 'Annual Statistician' for 1886 (San Francisco: L. P. McCarty; New York: F. E. Grant), though containing only a few more pages than last year's issue, appears to be a good deal larger, since it is printed on heavier paper. The style of binding is different and handsomer, and altogether the volume presents a much improved appearance. The contents are of the same general character as heretofore, the edition of 1886 quite maintaining the high reputation of the 'Statistician' as a useful and convenient book of reference. The returns of population in those States which in 1885 took a State census are fuller and more complete than those contained in the other annuals. In nine States there were enumerations in 1870, 1875, 1880, and 1885. These were Iowa, Kansas, Massachusetts, Michigan (in 1874 and 1884), Minnesota, Nebraska, New Jersey, Rhode Island, and Wisconsin. In 1880 these nine States had a little less than one-fifth the population of the country. Between 1870 and 1875 the rate of increase was 18.65 per cent., from 1875 to 1880 it was 21.39 per cent., and from 1880 to 1885 18.28 per cent. So far as these States may be taken as a fair sample of the whole country, it would appear that the aggregate population is growing a little more slowly than during the last decade.

One of the most curious volumes of the census of 1880 is that just issued from the Government Printing Office, viz., 'The United States Mining Laws,' compiled under the direction of Clarence King. The State and Territorial Laws occupy but 243 pages out of nearly 700. The rest are occupied with local mining laws and regulations, a "mine" of instruction as to the way in which the rude and heterogeneous communities drawn together by the precious-metal fever found a *modus vivendi*. The local nomenclature is highly amusing, and is conveniently displayed in the index. Big Bug Mining District, Drytown, Con Cow, Poppysquash, Sebastipool, Hungry Creek, Little Humbug Creek, Lower Humbug, Shirttail, Consolidated Ten Mile, Helltown, Jack Rabbit, Devil's Gate and Chinatown, Jackass and Poor Man's Creek, Rising Sun, Rough and Ready, are some of the oddest. Greeley Flat, Grizzly Flat, and Sucker Flat occur, but Bret Harte's Poker Flat is unrecorded. The transcripts from the minutes of miners' meetings bring one very close to the organization of primitive society on the Pacific Slope.

If M. Clédat's edition of the 'Chanson de Roland' (Paris: Garnier; Boston: Schoenhof) did not present itself as a book for schools, an *édition classique*, it might deserve high praise. The editor offers an entirely new text. He holds that the song of Roland is of *French* not of Norman or Anglo-Norman origin, and in accordance with this theory he changes the hitherto received versions so as to make of the poem as pure a specimen as he can give of the old *Langue d'oïl*, of the dialect of the Île de France. Thus *empereire* become *emperédre; Carles, oastel, Blancandrin* becomes *Charles, chastel, Blanchandrin*; *ad ested* is changed to *at estet*, etc. The result is a curious, and to a student of old French a very interesting, reconstruction or rather transposition of the old poem, but not at all the 'Chanson de Roland' as it should be presented to a beginner. There is an instructive preface, in which, however, the editor presupposes too little acquaintance with Latin. The glossary at the end is excellent. Everything is well explained, with numerous allusions to modern French. It is the best partial vocabulary of the *Langue d'oïl* that has yet been made, although a few of the etymologies might be contested; but owing to its elementary character there is nothing better that could be recommended to a beginner.

Viewed both as a French traveller and a writer, the author of 'L'Empire Russe en 1885' (Paris: Dreyfous; New York: F. W. Christern), M. G. Combes de Lestrade (or C. Combes de Lestrade, or Combes de l'Estrade, or Combes Lestrade; for we find all these forms on the covers and first pages of the volume), is a real phenomenon. He passed only a very short time—possibly a few months—in the great empire to which he devotes his book. He had "forgotten the once known Leroy-Beaulieu and Mackenzie Wallace," and gives us more sweeping and striking generalizations than either of those authors, after many years of the closest study, ever dared to broach on the same subject. A part of his generalizations he seems to have drawn from talk with fair representatives of that wonderful being, "la femme russe," in fair Paris, and a part from intuitive sources. All the book lacks is detail, evidence of observation, good sense, wit, style, and grammar. The following are its first sentences: "Cet ouvrage est sans prétentions. Une seule peut-être: c'est d'être vrai et encore. . . . . Ce serait un si grand mérite.—Disons d'être consciencieux. J'ai laissé à la frontière tous mes sentiments républicains. . . ." And these are the last: "Deux Russes, Skobeleff et Gortschakoff, deux Français, Gambetta et Chanzy, sont morts trop tôt. Leur souvenir survit, leur paroles subsistent. Nous les prenons, ces paroles, nous les crions, et elles deviendront le chant de guerre qui nous mènera au combat." This ardent anti-German sentiment may palliate in French eyes many a slip of diction and punctuation; but the sins are too many.

Since commenting on the members of the Goethe Gesellschaft (*Nation* No. 1084) a revised list has come to hand which brings their number in America up to 17, a better "shine" than England's. New York State furnishes 7; Ohio, Wisconsin, and Massachusetts 2 each; Illinois, Connecticut, Missouri, and Virginia 1 each. (Ithaca and New York city number 3 each; Boston none, unless Wellesley College should be credited to Boston.) Nine names suggest American, 8 German extraction, and 8 members are college professors. A copy, by the way, of the first report of the managers will be sent on application to B. Westermann & Co., in this city.

Nine new instalments of the abridged 'Allgemeine Weltgeschichte' of Flathe, Hertzberg, Justi, Philippson, etc. (Westermann & Co.) embrace the thirty-seventh. They conclude the history of Rome down to the division of the Empire in 395, and review the whole course of it in a chronological table. The illustrations continue plentiful, fresh, and of the best quality, most of the engravings of buildings and of statuary being from photographs. Some colored plates are admirable.

From the same firm we have parts 6-10 of the 'Geschichte der deutschen Kunst,' which drive a three-in-hand of Painting, Sculpture, and Architecture (by Janitschek, Bode, and Dohme respectively), with a fine array of woodcuts and chromolithographs.

Of the 'Allgemeine Naturkunde' (Westermann) parts 18-24 are on our table, wholly devoted to man, his development, nourishment, etc. (by Dr. Johannes Ranke), and rich in the most authentic representations in black and white and in color.

The third volume of the fourth edition of 'Meyers' Konversations Lexikon' (Westermann) is now completed, closing with the name Chimbote. The geographical articles are, as usual, full and up to date, Bulgaria furnishing an example. Notable among the maps are those of Brandenburg, Brunswick (duchy and city), Bremen, Chemnitz, Budapest; the firebrand provinces Bosnia and Herzegovina, with Montenegro and parts of Servia and Albania, from Belgrade to Dulcigno. From the article Book Trade we learn that the unfinished work of the late Dr. Friedrich Kapp, on the German book trade, is in the press. Great American names are not numerous in the portion of alphabet covered by these instalments, but the omission of Aaron Burr is a failure of proportion only magnified by the insertion of "Artemus Ward." Fame is again illustrated by the fact that this lesser Browne and John Brown are each designated as "bekannter"; and while the bibliography of the humorist is carefully indicated, not a single reference is given for the hero of Harper's Ferry. Mr. G. W. Cable is admitted to the ranks. The large space allowed to Byron is significant of his lingering hold on the Continental imagination. His five columns contrast with the three given to Calvin and Cervantes, or the two to Burke and Carlyle, respectively.

The larger Brockhaus (L. W. Schmidt), in its thirteenth edition, touches *Raum* in Part 188. Poland, Portugal, and Prussia are the leading political articles. The list of planets is to be remarked. The chief maps are one of the European rainfall, another of the South Polar region, and a third of East and West Prussia. There is a beautiful colored plate of edible mushrooms. The editor has overlooked in his Poe bibliography the latest and best life, by Mr. G. E. Woodberry.

The lesser Brockhaus in its forty-fifth number ends with Northumberland. Here we have the poisonous mushrooms in their true colors, and maps of Spain and Portugal and of Switzerland—the latter too fine for the unaided eye.

The German and English collections of short tales published every three weeks by L. Schick, Chicago, and known as the "Collection Shick" and the "Overland Library," already require a shelf to themselves. Paul Heyse, K. E. Franzos, G. Droz, Rudolf and Paul Lindau, J. Rodenberg, E. Eckstein, W. Jensen, Sacher-Masoch, Turgeneff, Fanny Lewald, are some of the authors represented in one or both collections. When in both, the learner and the teacher of German sometimes have the same story in the two languages—a practical convenience. The argument in favor of the use of Roman type is reinforced by the contrast in legibility between the German and the English series.

Prof. Willard Fiske has printed at Florence for his own convenience a 'Hand-book of Petrarch Editions in the Florentine Public Libraries.' A

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list of special Petrarch bibliographies concludes this *brochure* of 12 pp. 8vo, in which one remarks the small proportion of works obelized to show that they are not contained in Mr. Fiske's own extraordinary collection.

The clerical press in Rome has made a great outcry against the municipality for its destruction of the ancient monuments in its endeavor to extirpate the squalor and pestilence of certain quarters. This has been incautiously caught up in Germany by Herman Grimm and Gregorovius, in the *Rundschau* and the *Allgemeine Zeitung*. The *Popolo Romano* and *Italie* have made effective replies, both in direct negation, and in showing what the boasted conservatism of the Papacy did in allowing these monuments to be encumbered and built over for base uses. A large part of the labor of the city government has been expended in undoing this very neglect. Grimm's article, however, is translated in full in a supplement to the Roman *Rassegna* of March 21.

A Committee of the American Society for Psychical Research on Apparitions and Haunted Houses consists of Josiah Royce, T. W. Higginson, and F. E. Abbot, Cambridge, Mass.; Morton Prince, M.D., John C. Ropes (No. 40 State Street), and Roland Thaxter (No. 98 Pinckney Street), Boston; and Woodward Hudson, Concord, Mass. They desire authentic communications concerning the apparitions of absent or deceased persons; and any member of the Committee will, on application, send a circular of instructions as to the kind of evidence desired—*i. e.*, as to what points should be certified.

New circulars of the Egypt Exploration Fund, with particulars concerning the labors past and future in the Delta region, may now be had on application to the Rev. W. C. Winslow, No. 429 Beacon Street, Boston, who, as honorary treasurer of the fund for the United States, will be glad to receive contributions towards the above object.

—No. 12 of Mr. J. H. Hickcox's Monthly Catalogue of United States Government Publications (906 M St., W., Washington, D. C.) completes the first volume; and not with the customary alphabetical list alone for the current session of Congress up to January 1, 1886, but with an index to the volume. For the first time, therefore, in the history of the country its public documents are grouped, classified, and made accessible. This simple statement conveys all that need be said to the intelligent, yet it is discouraging to learn that Mr. Hickcox's admirable and self-denying labors have not met with adequate support, even from the public libraries. He will go on, however, both continuing and improving his work. The truth is, that he is really the Government's servant, and should be officially recognized as such. The task he has undertaken properly devolves on the Government, and were a place found for Mr. Hickcox in one of the departments (say in the Bureau of Education), with an adequate salary, it would be an economy, since his Catalogue furnishes an indispensable basis for the control of our extravagant and wasteful publishing. In time there might grow out of this a proper system of selling the products of the Government Printing Office.

—The autobiography of literary men is interesting because it satisfies a justifiable popular curiosity in regard to those persons who achieve eminence and become public characters, or because it affords valuable lessons to the young who may be ambitious to try a similar career. Whether the department which *Lippincott's* for April opens, under the title of "Our Experience Meetings," is likely to prove useful in either way, is doubtful; but the first instalment does not rise above the level of personal gossip by the writers about themselves. The reporters will find their occupation gone if this sort of thing is to go on and the Court Circular of Scribbledom is to be written by the lions of the day. The authors who march serenely to the magazine confessional this month are Julian Hawthorne, Edgar Fawcett, and Joel Chandler Harris. The hour of their formal biographies is still distant, and at present they can confide only the history of their start, and their attitude toward the profession. Mr. Hawthorne was early warned off by his father, and took up the pen to support his family because he found it a means of getting ready money; he writes lightly, not to say cynically, and regards the matter as a kind of joke. Mr. Harris flatly denies that he is a literary man, more than hints that he would not be if he could, and looks on his rabbit stories as a freak of an otherwise well-regulated journalistic genius. But no budding poet ever took himself more seriously than Edgar Fawcett: he tells of his novels, etc., in the copy-books of his childhood, and of his later poems and novels; he declares himself well satisfied with results, both literary and pecuniary; poetry is his "most authentic gift," but he can do a novel with cleverness, and he may give us another drama, though the time for American drama, he suggests, has perhaps not arrived. He is evidently troubled by the "acid" critics who are "ignorant of so-called aristocratic New York doings"; and the sentences with which from time to time he switches these gad-flies off from his Pegasus are delightfully confidential. But really ought not some one to intimate that autobiography in men under forty is probably an impertinence?

—The *Century*, besides its usual variety of fiction, travel, and poetry, has two articles on public questions. One, on the all-absorbing topic of arbitration in the disputes of industry, is of considerable value merely by its clear and brief exposition of the modes of the foreign tribunals, especially the French, which have been long established and can be studied in their actual working. The method of arbitration is not a new idea, but, on the contrary, is just one of those matters about which we may profitably try to learn from "abroad." The sketch of Sir Titus Salt's labor village is effectively drawn, and makes a telling conclusion to a plea which errs only by its breadth. Rev. Washington Gladden, in another article, attempts to show that a reform in education is the pressing need; he would have it made by introducing industrial training and moral instruction, and he defends both on the ground of Christianity. The topics are old, but are treated in a fresh and forcible way. In regard to "moral instruction," it is most doubtful whether the question can be put on the ground of practical debate before a text-book is offered which shall remove the distrust of many as to whether morals can be presented to the young in a purely secular and prudential form; and at the same time the second question would be tested, as to whether the advocates of the reform would really be satisfied by a scientific compendium in which morals should be separated from the religious motives of conduct. It is to be noted that Mr. Gladden does not think direct religious instruction desirable under present circumstances.

—The early New England worthies figure largely in volume 6 (Bot-Bro.) of Leslie Stephen's 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan): John Brereton, Gosnold's companion in the voyage to Cape Cod and shortlived settlement in Buzzard's Bay in 1602 (not 1603, as here); Elder Brewster, of the *Mayflower*, and his companion, William Bradford; and Anne Bradstreet, poetess and the ancestor of poets, in Dana and Holmes, reckoning also Channing among her posterity. William Bradford, the printer, is found between the same covers. All the foregoing belong rather to the New than to the Old World. Among military and naval notables associated with this country are Braddock; the more fortunate Indian fighter, Henry Bouquet; General Brock, the victor over General Hull; Sir Philip Broke, whose *Shannon* captured the *Chesapeake* in our waters: and the two brothers, natives of Rhode Island, Captain Edward Pelham Brenton, R. N., and Vice-Admiral Sir Jaleel Brenton. The actors, Gustavus V. Brooke and John Brougham, belong in part—the latter in great part—to the American stage. Joseph Bramah's cisatlantic relations consisted in having his famous lock picked by the Yankee Hobbs in 1851. One name is missing from the Anglo-American list which well merited a place there, and, if there is to be a supplement to this Dictionary, should certainly not be overlooked again. We mean the Rev. George Bourne, who brought to his adopted country a thorough hatred of slavery, and first on either side of the Atlantic demanded in print its immediate abolition. Pioneers and originators to be remarked in the strictly British portion are Matthew Boulton, partner with Watt in perfecting the steam-engine; George Bradshaw, the inventor of railway guides; Alderman John Boydell, whose illustrated Shakspere was the first great undertaking of the kind by English artists; Lord Brougham, founder of the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge; Baron Berners, first translator of Froissart into English; and Henry Boyd, who first turned Dante into English verse (1785). The notice of Brougham is kindly; that of Dr. Bowring more sympathetic. Leslie Stephen's account of Charlotte Brontë comprehends the entire family, and treats at length of the mad Branwell, in order to put at rest the scandals which he propagated. A critical estimate of the author of 'Jane Eyre' is not attempted. Bracton is the chief legal luminary in this volume, his birth-place (like the spelling of his name) being still undetermined. Science is represented by Robert Boyle, a "philosopher" in the older sense of the term; by James Bradley, the astronomer; by Richard Bright, the discoverer of the too familiar disease which bears his name. Anne Bracegirdle and John Braham stand for the dramatic and lyric stage. Thomas Bowdler it was whose Shaksperian expurgations suggested to Gen. Perronet Thompson the term to *bowdlerize*. Lord Mayo's is one of the latest political names we meet with, and fresher still is that of Charles Bray, the friend of George Eliot.

—"A Non-Political Scientist" writes us:

"The article about Huxley in the *Nation* of April 8 is capital; but can't you get the writer to match it by the 'scientific politician,' taking the last words of wisdom of the G. O. M. on the subject of Genesis in the *Nineteenth Century*?"

—The north coast of the South American continent is inhabited by a number of tribes belonging to the so-called Carib family. This race also found scattered to a considerable distance in land, as on the Lower and Middle Orinoco; and in the Goajira peninsula one of the most barbaric Carib tribes has for some time made travelling dangerous or impossible. (See the *Nation*, No. 1077.) There is an isolated tract of mountains, rising up to 6,000 metres, in the northern part of the Colombian States, the Sierra Nevada de Santa Marta, around which are gathered several distinct populations of the Carib stock hardly known to this day except by name. Among these we have the Köggaba, the Chimila, probably mixed with the historical Tairones, the Bintakua, and the Guamaka, who live at Marocasa and El Rosario. The presbyter Rafael Celedón, favorably known by his Goajira grammar and dictionary, recently visited the above tribes for scienti-

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fic purposes. Though some of them did not receive him amicably, he succeeded in gathering sufficient material to publish a grammar, catechism, and vocabulary of the Köggaba tongue, which in its phonetics recalls at once the Goajira. His work has been published this year by Maisonneuve & Co., Paris, with introduction and text in Spanish. The Vocabulary forms two parts: Spanish-Köggaba and Köggaba-Spanish, each containing about 1,250 vocables. The sixteen concluding pages of the volume are filled with comparative vocabularies of Guamaka (of which Celedón had previously published a short vocabulary), of Chimila, and of Bintakua. Even readers who are not linguists will find themselves deeply interested in the historic and ethnologic introduction. The novelty of the sketches taken in a country so little known and visited is as charming as the graphic delineation of the Indian tribes studied by the author, who presides over an educational establishment at Santa Marta.

—Joseph Victor von Scheffel, whom death relieved from intense sufferings on April 10, was unquestionably the most popular German poet of this generation. His popularity was evinced not only by the extraordinary success of his "Trompeter von Säckingen"—which has passed through seventy-seven editions—but by the great number of disciples and imitators whom his muse called forth, so that his influence on rising German poets is perhaps only inferior to that of Heine. Scheffel revived with astonishing success the interest in the days and lays of the minnesingers which was always supposed to linger in every German breast, but which did not become vital until his own songs wove past and present into a charming reality. And though "working a vein"—a proceeding generally fatal to true poetry—he often touched the heart of Germany as only Uhland's ballads did before him. His "Gaudeamus" and other songs made him the idol of German universities, while the local color which he infused not only into his "Ekkehard" and other pseudo-mediæval poems but also into his antediluvian and prehistoric humor, testified to the range of his scholarly attainments. Like Uhland, Geibel, and Bodenstedt, at once a scholar and a poet of the people, Scheffel was manly and liberal in things poetical, political, and religious. He was one of the most gifted sons of Baden, which occupies so enviable a position among German States, and which, at the approaching jubilee of the Heidelberg University, would have honored him according to his deserts. He had just celebrated his sixtieth birthday amidst the congratulations of all Germany.

—In a recent number of the *Zeitschrift für Völkerpsychologie und Sprachwissenschaft*, Steinthal, with his usual vigor, decides in favor of Greek against Latin. If the youthful generation is overburdened, and one or the other must go, away with the Latin. What is the good of Latin? he asks. The jurist, if he needs it, can learn it at the university; and not every jurist needs it. The theologian does not need it; least of all, the physician. There is no substitute for Greek. Translations from the Greek are only enjoyable to those who know something of Greek, something of Hellenism. We are all barbarians—the Romans as well as ourselves. There is only one road to humanity, and that leads through Greece, as there is but one road to religion, and that leads through Palestine. This is Wilhelm von Humboldt's creed, and Steinthal repeats it. Steinthal does not undertake to decide for or against the thesis that the Germans have a congeniality with the Greeks. If the congeniality is denied, then the study of Greek is so much the more necessary. Not that every numskull is to study Greek, but the upper ten thousand, the upper hundred thousand, must be impregnated with Greek. One cannot experiment with history, and no one can tell what the higher life of Germany will be like when Greek vanishes. Steinthal believes that there will be a condition of absolute unculture, and that Germany will lose its high rank in physics and chemistry, its primacy in physiology, when the German gymnasium and German philosophy cease to be. If Steinthal had looked back into the history of the Middle Ages, and watched the attitude of the mediæval mind toward the unknown background of such culture as was then possessed, he might have found some experimental evidence for his thesis, which, with all its exaggeration, carries with it a certain lesson. Every element of culture that has become national is indefeasible. The only question is the question of proportion.

SCHUMANN AS MIRRORED IN HIS LETTERS.

Jugendbriefe von Robert Schumann. Nach den Originalen mitgetheilt von Clara Schumann. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel. 1886. Pp. 315.

Clara Schumann, the most gifted woman that has ever chosen music as a profession, and who, at the age of sixty-seven, still continues to be among the most fascinating of pianists, has placed the musical world under additional obligations by issuing this collection of private letters, written by Schumann between the ages of eighteen and thirty (1827–40), partly to her, partly to his mother, and other relatives, friends, and business associates. She was prompted to this act not only by the consciousness that there are many literary gems in the correspondence which should not be lost to the world, but by the thought that more is generally known of Schumann's eccentricities than of his real traits of character. Inasmuch as a wretched script was one of the most conspicuous of these eccentricities, it is fortunate that his wife lived to edit his letters; but even she, though familiar with his handwriting during many years of courtship and marriage, is not infrequently obliged to interpolate a conjectural word. Schumann had a genuine vein of humor, which he reveals in his correspondence as in his compositions and criticisms. He was aware that his manuscript was not a model of caligraphy, but, on being remonstrated with, he passionately declared he could not do any better, promising, however, sarcastically that, as a predestined diplomat, he would keep an amanuensis in future. And on page 245 begins a long letter to Clara which presents a curious appearance. Every twentieth word or so is placed between two vertical lines, regarding which the reader is kept in the dark until he comes to this postscript: "In great haste, owing to business affairs, I add a sort of lexicon of indistinctly written words, which I have placed within brackets. This will probably make the letter appear very picturesque and piquant. The idea is not so bad. Adio, clarissima Cara, cara Clarissima." Then follows the "lexicon" of twenty words, including his own signature.

Although, in a semi-humorous vein, Schumann repeatedly alludes in these letters to the "foregone conclusion" that they will some day be printed, there is hardly any indication that such a thought was ever in his mind while writing them. They are, in fact, full of confidences and confessions, some of which he could not have been very ambitious to see in print; such as his frequent appeals for "more ducats," during his student days, and his sophistically ingenious excuses for needing so much money, placed side by side with his frank admission that he had no talent for economy, and was very fond of cigars, wine, and especially travelling. In one of the most amusing of the letters, he advances twelve reasons why his mother should send him about $200 to enable him to see Switzerland and Italy. As a last, convincing argument he gently hints that it is very easy for a student in Heidelberg to borrow money at 10 per cent. interest. He got the money and enjoyed his Swiss tour, mostly on foot and alone; but in Italy various misfortunes overtook him—he fell ill, his money ran out, and he was only too glad to return to Heidelberg in the same condition as when he had first arrived there, on which occasion the state of his purse compelled him to make the last part of the journey from Leipzig on foot. On this trip he enjoyed that unique emotional thrill of the German, the first sight of the Rhine, with which he was so enchanted that he went to the extreme forward end of the deck, smoking a good cigar given him by an Englishman: "Thus I sat alone all the afternoon, revelling in the wild storm which ploughed through my hair, and composing a poem of praise to the Northeast wind"—for Schumann often indulged in poetic efforts, especially when inspired to flights of fancy by his favorite author, Jean Paul.

At Heidelberg, which he called "ein ganzes Paradies von Natur," he spent one of the happiest years of his life. Student life at this town he thus compares with Leipzig:

"In and near Heidelberg the student is the most prominent and respected individual, since it is he who supports the town, so that the citizens and Philistines are naturally excessively courteous. I consider it a disadvantage for a young man, especially for a student, to live in a town where the student only and solely rules and flourishes. Repression alone favors the free development of a youth, and the everlasting loafing with students greatly limits many-sidedness of thought, and consequently exerts a bad influence on practical life. This is one great advantage Leipzig has over Heidelberg, which, in fact, a large city always has over a small one. . . . On the other hand, Heidelberg has this advantage, that the grandeur and beauty of the natural scenery prevent the students from spending so much of their time in drinking; for which reason the students here are ten times more sober than in Leipzig."

Schumann himself, as we have said, was fond of a glass of good wine. On his first journey at Prague, he tells us, the Tokay made him happy. And in another place he exclaims, "Every day I should like to drink champagne to excite myself." But, though of a solitary disposition, he did not care to drink alone, for "only in the intimate circle of sympathetic hearts does the vine's blood become transfused into our own, and warm it to enthusiasm." Schumann's special vice was the constant smoking of very strong cigars; nor does he appear to have devoted to gastronomic matters the attention necessary to nourish such an abnormally active brain as his. At one time he lived on potatoes alone for several weeks; at another he saved on his meals to get money for French lessons; and although he took enough interest in a good *menu* to copy it in a letter, he repeatedly laments the time which is uselessly wasted in eating. Such a policy, combined with his smoking habit, doubtless helped to shatter his powers, leading finally to the lunatic asylum and a comparatively early death.

His frequent fits of melancholy may also perhaps be traced in part to these early habits. Though probably unacquainted with Burton, he held that "there is in melancholy sentiments something extremely attractive and even invigorating to the imagination." Attempts were frequently made by his friends to teach him more sociable habits. Thus, at Leipzig, "Dr. Carus's family are anxious to introduce me to innumerable families — 'it would be good for my prospects,' they think, and so do I, and yet I don't get there, and in fact seldom go out at all. Indeed, I am often very leathery, dry, disagreeable, and laugh much inwardly." That his apparent coldness and indifference to his

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neighbors and friends were due chiefly to his absorption in his world of ideas, and his consequent want of sympathy with the artificial usages of society, becomes apparent from this confession, written to Clara in 1838:

"I should like to confide to you many other things regarding my character—how people often wonder that I meet the warmest expressions of love with coldness and reserve, and often offend and humiliate precisely those who are most sincerely devoted to me. Often have I queried and reproached myself for this, for inwardly I acknowledge even the most trifling favor, understand every wink, every subtle trait in the heart of another, and yet I so often blunder in what I say and do."

In these melancholy moods nature was his refuge and consolation. He objected to Leipzig, because there were no delights of nature—"everything artificially transformed; no valley, no mountain, where I might revel in my thoughts: no place where I can be alone, except in the bolted room, with the eternal noise and turmoil below." Although he had but a few intimate friends, he was liked by all the students, and even enjoyed the name of "a favorite of the Heidelberg public." One of his intimate friends was Flechsig, but even of him he paradoxically complains that he is too sympathetic: "He never cheers me up; if I am occasionally in a melancholy mood, he ought not to be the same, and he ought to have sufficient humanity to stir me up. That I often need cheering up, I know very well." Yet he was as often in a state of extreme happiness and enjoyment of life and his talents. He even, on occasion, indulged in students' pranks. On his journey to Heidelberg he induced the postillion to let him take the reins: "Thunder! how the horses ran, and how extravagantly happy I was, and how we stopped at every tavern to get fodder, and how I entertained the whole company, and how sorry they all were when I parted from them at Wiesbaden!!" At Frankfort, one morning, he writes: "I felt an extraordinary longing to play on a piano. So I calmly went to the nearest dealer, told him I was the tutor of a young English lord who wished to buy a grand piano, and then I played, to the wonder and delight of the bystanders, for three hours. I promised to return in two days and inform them if the lord wanted the instrument; but on that date I was at Rüdesheim drinking Rüdesheimer." In another place he gives an account of "a scene worthy of Van Dyck, and a most genial evening" he spent with some students at a tavern filled with peasants. They had some grog, and at the request of the peasants one of the students declaimed, and Schumann played. Then a dance was arranged. "The peasants beat time with their feet. We were in high spirits, and danced dizzily among the peasant feet, and finally took a touching farewell of the company by giving all the peasant girls, Minchen, etc., smacking kisses on the lips."

Were women, like men, afflicted with retrospective jealousy, Schumann's widow, in editing these letters, would have received a pang from many other passages revealing Schumann's fondness for the fair sex. He allowed no good-looking woman to pass him on the street without taking the opportunity to cultivate his sense of beauty. After his engagement to Clara he gives her fair warning that he has the "very mischievous habit" of being a great admirer of beautiful women and girls. "They make me positively smirk, and I swim in panegyrics on your sex. Consequently, if, at some future time we walk along the streets of Vienna and meet a beauty, and I exclaim, 'Oh, Clara! see this heavenly vision,' or something of the sort, you must not be alarmed nor scold me." He had a number of transient passions before he discovered that Clara was his only true love. There was Nanni, his "guardian angel," who saved him from the perils of the world and hovered before his vision like a saint. "I feel like kneeling before her and adoring her like a Madonna." But Nanni had a dangerous rival in Liddy. Not long, however, for he found Liddy silly, cold as marble, and—fatal defect—she could not sympathize with him regarding Jean Paul. "The exalted image of my ideal disappears when I think of the remarks she made about Jean Paul. Let the dead rest in peace."

Several of his flames are not alluded to in this correspondence. On his travels he appears to have had the habit of noting down in his diary the prevalence and peculiarities of feminine beauty. He complains that from Mainz to Heidelberg he "did not see a single pretty face." Yet as a whole the Rhine maidens seem to have won his admiration:

"What characteristic faces among the lowest classes! On the west shore of the Rhine the girls have very delicate features, indicating amiability rather than intelligence; the noses are mostly Greek, the face very oval and artistically symmetrical, the hair brown; I did not see a single blonde. The complexion is soft, delicate, with more white than red; melancholy rather than sanguine. The Frankfort girls, on the other hand, have in common a sisterly trait—the character of German, manly, sad earnestness which we often find in our quondam free cities, and which toward the east gradually merges into a gentle softness. Characteristic are the faces of all the Frankfort girls: intellectual or beautiful few of them; the noses mostly Greek, often snub-noses; the dialect I did not like."

The English type of beauty appears to have especially won his approval. "When she spoke it sounded like the whispering of angels," he says of an Englishwoman, "as pretty as a picture," whom he met. Elsewhere he says, laconically: "On the 24th I arrived at Mainz with the steamer, in company with twenty to thirty Englishmen and women. Next day the number of English increased to fifty. If I ever marry, it must be an English woman." Some years later, however, with the fickleness of genius, he writes about Ernestine, the daughter of a rich Bohemian Baron, "a delightfully innocent, childish soul, tender and pensive, attached to me and to everything artistic by the most sincere love, extremely musical—in short, just the kind of a girl I could wish to marry." He did get engaged to her, but the following year the engagement was dissolved; and soon after this he discovered that his artistic admiration for Clara Wieck had assumed the form of love. Although her father opposed their union several years, on account of Schumann's poverty, the young couple often met, and not only in the music-room. In 1833 he writes to his mother regarding Clara: "The other day when we went to Connewitz (we take a two or three hours' walk almost daily), I heard her say to herself, 'How happy I am! how happy!' Who would not like to hear that! On this road there are a number of very useless stones, in the midst of the footpath. Now, as it happens in conversation that I more frequently look up than down, she always walks behind me and gently pulls my coat at every stone, lest I may fall."

It was most fortunate for Schumann that his bride and wife was one of the greatest living pianists. For, owing to the accident to his hand, though he could still improvise, he could not appear in public to interpret his own compositions, which depended so much for their success on a sympathetic performance, since they differed so greatly from the prevalent style of Hummel and the classical masters that even so gifted a musician as Mendelssohn failed to understand them. But Clara made it the task of her life to secure him recognition, and this was an additional bond that united their souls. "When you are mine," he writes, "you will occasionally hear something new from me; I believe you will often inspire me, and the mere fact that I shall then frequently hear my own compositions will cheer me up." "Your Romance showed me once more that we must become man and wife. Every one of your thoughts comes from my soul, even as I owe all my music to you." To Dorn he writes that many of his compositions, including the Noveletten, the Kreisleriana, and the Kinderscenen, were inspired by Clara; and it is well known that his love became the incentive to the composition, in one year, of over a hundred wonderful songs—his previous compositions, up to 1840, having all been for piano alone. "I have discovered," he writes in 1838, "that nothing is so apt to give wings to the imagination as expectation and longing for something, as happened again in the last few days, when I was awaiting a letter from you and meanwhile composed whole volumes—strange, crazy, most majestic things; how you will open your eyes when you play them. In brief, I am often so full of music now that I feel as if I should burst." In the last letter of this collection he says: "Sometimes it appears to me as if I were treading entirely new paths in music"; and there are many other passages showing that he realized well that the very things which his contemporaries criticised and decried as eccentric and obscure (Hummel, *e. g.*, on page 179, objects to his frequent changes of harmony and his originality!), were really his most inspired efforts. Though he never allowed the desire for popularity to influence his work, yet he occasionally craves appreciation. "I am willing to confess that I should be greatly pleased if I could succeed in composing something which would impel the public, after hearing you play it, to run against the walls in their delight; for vain we composers are, even though we have no reason to be so." It must have given him a strange shock when an amateur asked him, at one of his wife's concerts in Vienna, if he also was musical!

In her efforts to win appreciation for her husband, Clara was nobly assisted by Liszt. Just like Wagner, Schumann was not at first very favorably impressed with Liszt, owing to the sensational flavor of his early performances. But he soon changed his mind, especially when Liszt played some of his (Schumann's) compositions. "Many things were different from my conception of them, but always '*genial*,' and marked by a tenderness and boldness of expression which even he presumably has not at his command every day. Becker was the only other person present, and he had tears in his eyes." And two days later: "But I must tell you that Liszt appears to me grander every day. This morning he again played at Raimund Härtel's, in a way to make us all tremble and rejoice, some études of Chopin, a number of the Rossini soirées, and other things." Of other contemporary pianists Hummel, "ten years behind the times," and Thalberg, whom he liked better as pianist than as composer, are alluded to. Yet he writes in 1830 that he intends going to Weimar "for the sly reason of being able to *call myself* a pupil of Hummel." Wieck, his father-in-law, he esteemed greatly as teacher and adviser, but it offended him deeply that Wieck should have followed the common error of estimating genius with a yardstick, and asked where were his "Don Juan" and his "Freischütz"? His enthusiasm for Schubert, Chopin, and especially for Bach finds frequent expression. Bach's "Well-Tempered Clavichord," he declares is his "grammar, and the best of all grammars. The fugues I have analyzed successively to the minutest details: the advantage resulting from this is great, and has a morally bracing effect on the whole system, for Bach was a man through and through; in him there is nothing done by halves, nothing morbid,

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but all is written for time eternal." Six years later: "Bach is my daily bread; from him I derive gratification and get new ideas—'compared with him we are all children,' Beethoven has said, I believe." One day a caller remarked that Bach was old and wrote in an old-fashioned manner: "but I told him he was neither old nor new, but much more than that, namely, eternal. I came near losing my temper." Concerning the unappreciative Mendelssohn, he writes to Clara:

"I am told that he is not well disposed toward me. I should feel sorry if that were true, since I am conscious of having preserved noble sentiments toward him. If you know anything let me hear it on occasion; that will at least make me cautious, and I do not wish to squander anything where I am ill-spoken of. Concerning my relations toward him as a musician [1838], I am quite aware that I could learn of him for years; but he, too, some things of me. Brought up under similar circumstances, destined for music from childhood, I would surpass you all—that I feel from the energy of my inventive powers."

Concerning this energy he says, some time after this, when he had just finished a dozen songs: "Again I have composed so much that I am sometimes visited by a mysterious feeling. Alas! I cannot help it. I could wish to sing myself to death, like a nightingale."

One of the most interesting bits of information contained in this correspondence is that, when quite a young man, Schumann commenced a treatise on musical æsthetics. In view of the many epoch-making thoughts contained in his two volumes of collected criticisms, it is very much to be regretted that this plan was not carried out. On one question of musical psychology light is thrown by several of these letters. Like many other composers, it seems that Schumann often, if not generally, had some pictorial image or event in his mind in composing. "When I composed my first songs," he writes to Clara, "I was entirely within you. Without such a bride one cannot write such music." "I am affected by everything that goes on in the world—politics, literature, mankind. In my own manner I meditate on everything, which then seeks utterance in music. That is why many of my compositions are so difficult to understand, because they relate to remote affairs; and often significant, because all that's remarkable in our time affects me, and I have to give it expression in musical language." One of the letters to Clara begins: "Tell me what the first part of the Fantasia suggests to you. Does it not bring many pictures before your mind?" Concerning the "Phantasiestücke" he writes: "When they were finished I was delighted to find the story of Hero and Leander in them. . . . Tell me if you, too, find this picture fitting the music." "The Papillons," he says once more, are intended to be a musical translation of the final scene in Jean Paul's "Flegeljahre."

Believers in telepathy will be interested in the following additional instance of composing with a visual object in the mind (p. 301): "I wrote to you concerning a presentiment; it occurred to me on the days from March 24 to 27, when I was at work on my new composition. There is a place in it to which I constantly recurred; it is as if some one sighed, 'Ach, Gott!' from the bottom of his heart. While composing, I constantly saw funeral processions, coffins, unhappy people in despair; and when I had finished, and long searched for a title, the word 'corpse-fantasia' continually obtruded itself. Is not that remarkable? During the composition, moreover, I was often so deeply affected that tears came to my eyes, and yet I knew not why and had no reason—till Theresa's letter arrived, which made everything clear." His brother was on his death-bed.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

In Prof. John Chipman Gray's slender octavo, ('The Rule against Perpetuities,' Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) we have a book to be thankful for—a really masterly book, in which the author has given to his profession in a compact, simple, unpedantic form the results of thorough research. There are one or two good English treatises on this subject, especially one by Lewis; but there is nothing so good as the book now before us, which will rank, indeed, with the very best legal treatises on any subject in our language.

The topic is a narrow one, but beset with difficulty, full of ambiguity, and peculiarly embarrassed by ill-instructed opinions: it deals with the most recondite and technical parts of our law, but is yet of great and every-day importance. "There are few lawyers," says Professor Gray in his preface, in a passage that will have many an echo, "of any practice in drawing wills and settlements who have not at some time either fallen into the net which the Rule spreads for the unwary, or have not at least shuddered to think how narrowly they have escaped it." The Rule against Perpetuities is popularly known as a rule to prevent a man from tying up his property beyond a life or lives in being and twenty-one years and ten months thereafter; or for a term longer than twenty-one years, if the time be measured merely by years. This conception of the rule has led to many errors. "An interest," says our author, "is not obnoxious to the Rule against Perpetuities if it begins within lives in being and twenty-one years, although it may end beyond them." And again, he speaks of "the mistaken idea that a trust violates the Rule against Perpetuities because it is to last indefinitely." Professor Gray emphasizes the infelicity of the word "perpetuities," a word which is yoked with monopolies and thundered against in several of the State constitutions, with a certain mistaken or ambiguous uproar, thus: "Perpetuities and monopolies are contrary to the genius of a republic and shall not be allowed." The Rule is not concerned directly with preventing what appears to be here intended, the tying up of property and taking it out of commerce: that consideration does not supply the proper test; it is directed against the creation of remote future interests. In preventing this it incidentally accomplishes the first-named result, but the Rule may apply although there is no tying up of property. The author says in his preface:

"The Rule against Perpetuities should have been called the Rule against Remoteness. It is aimed at the control of future interests; it has *nothing to do, save incidentally, with present interests*. But its name is a constant temptation to treat it as aimed against restraints on the alienation of present interests. Hence frequent lapses into error, from which the courts have recovered themselves slowly and painfully; and hence also statutes, like those of New York, whose interpretation has cost and will cost a subsidy. If this book has any merit, it is in the more or less successful attempt to free the subject from this source of confusion and mistake."

The Rule itself is stated by Professor Gray, clearly and compactly, thus: "No interest subject to a condition precedent is good, unless the condition must be fulfilled, if at all, within twenty-one years after some life in being at the creation of the interest." Within the meaning of this Rule a life in being includes one that is begotten, and so covers the period of gestation. But is there not a defect in this statement of the Rule, from omitting to include in it, in terms, the case of a gross term of twenty-one years having no reference to any infancy? That case is fully considered by the author, and in a mathematical sense is, perhaps, covered; but ought it not to be taken up explicitly into the terms of the Rule?

Two chapters of the book, the second and fifth, will be found particularly valuable and full of interest. The second chapter shows how all restraints on the creation of future interests in property have been done away, except those arising from remoteness: "Of all that forest of learning there remains here and there only a stump over which an unlucky testator may stumble." The fifth chapter states and traces in a masterly way the origin and history of this judge-made law—a most instructive piece of reading. No one without experience in such attempts can appreciate fully the skill that Professor Gray has shown in this part of his work, and, indeed, throughout, in condensing his material. And yet he has ranged over the whole field of legal decision, in England, and in all our States; and we find him able to put his finger upon a certain case as the only one there is on either side of the water passing upon a certain point, and we come upon the statement that there are just three cases or eleven cases which hold this or the other doctrine. This absolutely thorough treatment of his subject, by one who yet remains master of all his material, and who presents his results in a shape perfectly simple, intelligible, and helpful to the profession, is wholly admirable. The book presents a model for those who would write on legal subjects: choose a narrow topic and do your work thoroughly. As fast as such books are written, we shall be ready for the question of codification; not before. If any one would see the peril, the scandal, the waste there is in hasty and ignorant legislation, and what a field there is for such books as this in preparing the way for good legislation, let him read the following passages from Professor Gray's appendix:

"Upon the consideration of the New York Statutes [the Revised Statutes of 1828] two remarks suggest themselves. *First.* Those statutes evidently start with the theory that the immediate object of the Rule against Perpetuities is to limit restraints upon alienation. This idea has been common, and decisions have been based upon it; but the difficulties and confusion arising therefrom have caused the idea to be recognized as erroneous, and the decisions to be overruled or disapproved. This erroneous theory is crystallized in the New York Statutes. *Secondly.* The common-law Rule of Perpetuities grew out of the ordinary usages of the community, and is fitted to them. A will drawn as testators generally wish their wills drawn does not violate the Rule. The limit of lives in being is a natural limit. The Rule strikes down only unusual provisions. But the limit of two lives, fixed by the New York statute, is an arbitrary limit. It cuts through and defeats the most ordinary provisions. To allow future estates, and yet to confine them within bounds so purely arbitrary, would seem to be an invitation to litigation. And so the event has proved. The joint effect of these two causes is, that in no civilized country is the making of a will so delicate an operation and so likely to fail of success as in New York. Before the passage of the Revised Statutes there seems to have been but one case before the courts in that State in which the remoteness of a limitation was called in issue, and that presented only a simple question of construction. Since the passage of the Revised Statutes there have been over one hundred and seventy reported cases on questions of remoteness. They are given in a note."

Mr. Field's Codes had better wait. For the present let us be content with amendment or revision merely.

The last volume of Deering's 'Codes and Statutes of California' (San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co.) contains the Penal Code and certain statutes now in force and not elsewhere printed in the Codes. A full general index to the four volumes follows. The annotations are numerous and take a wide range; but in the main the book is of merely local interest. As a code the work here edited is not remarkable.

Some use of Mr. George Merrill's 'Studies in Comparative Jurisprudence and the Conflict of

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Laws' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) leads us to think it a good and accurate contribution to the subject. The author's personal experience "as an American lawyer in Paris for a period of more than fifteen years" gives a precision to his knowledge of actual questions and the way of dealing with them which shows itself throughout the book. The reader observes with dissatisfaction that the author sometimes takes his cases at second-hand, and that his examination of certain questions has not been searching enough; but criticism is disarmed by the statement in the preface that the writer "lost his sight before his work was commenced, and has since remained almost blind—wholly so, in fact, as regards the power of reading and writing." The book deals with the subjects of Nationality, Domicile, the Rights, etc., of Aliens, certain Contracts, and Bankruptcy and Insolvency.

Mr. Charles E. Grinnell's 'Law of Deceit and Incidents in its Practice, illustrated by an Analysis of Massachusetts Cases and by References to some other Authorities' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) is a small book, intended, as the title indicates, for local use. The author has evidently taken much pains with it: "I have read," he says, "and analyzed every case which I have cited." How many law writers can say that? The book presents a preliminary general account of the legal nature and essentials of deceit, and then "a separate and detailed study of the Massachusetts cases as a distinct body of law and practice"—a study which the author originally made for his own use and found serviceable. The writer's aim is a definite one: to aid working lawyers, especially at the beginning, in the practice of the law in Massachusetts; and they will certainly profit by help which is so conscientiously and intelligently prepared. In another edition the author might well give his readers the benefit of a chronological arrangement of the cases, and of what occurs to him from a contemplation of them in that order; nothing is more fruitful than that.

'Military Law,' in two volumes (Washington: W. H. Morrison), by Lieut.-Col. William Winthrop, Deputy Judge-Advocate General of the United States Army, is a valuable book, but its value is impaired by omitting an index of cases. Military law, as the author remarks, suffers from the all but invincible unwillingness of mankind to discriminate it from martial law; this, as he says, is partly accounted for by the unfortunate name that is fastened upon the courts of the military community—"courts-*martial*." Specifically, it is the "law governing the army as a separate community," both in peace and war; a law which is older than our constitutions, and is recognized by them. It has its written, and to a small extent its unwritten, law, and is enforced by its "courts," but these courts are no part of the judiciary: "they are, in fact, simply instrumentalities of the executive power" for governing, disciplining, and punishing the army. There is also what the author calls "the law of war," covering both the military government of conquered regions and "martial law" proper. The author uses martial law in the specific meaning of military rule, exercised by the State and nation over its own citizens in an emergency justifying it. In the third part of Colonel Winthrop's treatise he deals with the functions and relations of the military as assistants to the civil power. A careful examination of this book leads us to form a high opinion of its merits. It deals not alone with the technical matters of military-legal practice, but also with the historical development of military law, illustrated, in the appendix, by valuable documents; with our problems of the reconstruction period; and with the grave questions of constitutional law which the war of secession engendered. The author writes as one not only learned but accomplished in his subject.

Among certain curious as well as valuable documents in the appendix, there is an ordinance of the English King Richard I. for keeping the peace aboard his ships on the voyage of his soldiers to the Holy Land. As Americans, we are interested in noticing that the art of tarring and feathering was known to this energetic prince in the year of grace 1190; this also we have inherited from England. A robber, says Richard, "shall have his head cropped after the manner of a champion, and boiling pitch shall be poured thereon, and then the feathers of a cushion shall be shaken out upon him, so that he may be known, and at the first land at which the ships shall touch he shall be set on shore."

The thirteenth edition of Story's 'Equity Jurisprudence' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) is edited by Dr. Melville M. Bigelow. The wide scope of this great magazine of learning and its body of notes, is seen by observing that the table of cases alone fills ninety-two pages of double columns. This edition proceeds upon the excellent plan of restoring the text to the precise shape in which the author left it in his last edition, the fourth, published after his death, and of rewriting the entire body of editor's notes; three chapters, however, written by Judge Redfield, a former editor, are retained at the end of the work. "For better or worse," says Dr. Bigelow, "each note of the present edition is a unit. Many of the annotations, too, on the more important subjects have taken the form, and the editor hopes may prove to have some of the merits, of monographs. These . . . should be read through to be fully understood, at least by the student." These changes will add much to the convenience of the reader. The notes on mistake of law and of fact, misrepresentation, equitable estoppel, clouds on title, specific performance and injunctions, are full and valuable.

Mr. James L. High, after an interval of ten years, publishes now the second edition of his useful work on 'The Law of Receivers' (Chicago: Callaghan & Co.). This is a branch of procedure in equity which has received a great development in our time. The terrible collapse in our Western railroads raised many grave questions under this title, and the author tells us that the law relating to receivers over railways has been largely the growth of the period since his first edition. To this branch of his subject he gives careful attention. Upon this, as well as upon the topics of more general professional interest, such as receivers in cases of partnership and the claims of judgment creditors, the work is a valuable manual of practice. The chief desideratum that we remark is some tracing of the historical development of the subject.

The first volume has been published (Berlin: Carl Habel) of a 'Handbuch des Völkerrechts,' by Prof. von Holtzendorff, acting in coöperation with other eminent German authorities. There are to be four volumes. The one now issued is introductory, and comprises a learned consideration of certain fundamental conceptions in international law and of the history and literature of the subject.

RECENT FRENCH BOOKS.

M. Ernest Renan has given to the world another *drame philosophique* in his new work, "Le Prêtre de Nemi" (Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof). As in "Caliban" and "L'Eau de Jouvence," the dramatic element is subordinated to the philosophical, without being totally sacrificed to it; which is perhaps only saying that M. Renan is a writer of genius, who can give life to any form into which he chooses to throw his thought. The form he has chosen is the only one, he says in his preface, which seems suitable to him for the exposition of certain philosophical ideas concerning the highest problems of humanity—those which, from their nature, ought neither to be directly affirmed nor directly denied, but rather presented in all their varying aspects. "L'envers de chaque pensée doit être indiqué, de manière que le lecteur saisisse d'un seul coup d'œil les deux faces opposées dont se compose toute vérité." It is to express more vividly the many-sidedness of his ideas that M. Renan has chosen to incarnate them in the personages of his drama, which is at the same time political and religious, antique and modern, but always abstract and universal. The action takes place, indeed, at Alba Longa and at Nemi near by, and in the distance the little hill crowned with walls is the Palatine with the newly founded Roma Quadrata; but, in a certain sense, the narrow stage holds within its limits all time and space and all humanity. "By the side of the actual history which has happened," says M. Renan, "is the ideal history which materially has never taken place, but which, in an ideal sense, has happened a thousand times." It is thus that the French Republic, the Commune and the German invasion, the Comte de Chambord and the Pope, the conservatives, the opportunists, and the anarchists of recent political history, are divined through the Alban state and people of the drama; that the moral and religious questions of to-day are indicated in the intrigues and contentions, the struggles and defeats of Antistius and his supporters and opponents. Nowhere has M. Renan shown his wonderful power of expression in a greater degree than in "Le Prêtre de Nemi." All the precision and clearness of which French prose is capable is woven by this great enchanter into a magical veil, through which he reveals to his readers and conceals from them by turns the ideal which never descends from the remoteness of his own conception into the glare of positive assertion. It is the most subtle essence of his thought which he gives, not the thought itself. M. Renan is too much of a poet not to feel how much he would sacrifice by any other method; and if his readers do not seize all the illusive and changing shades of his ideas, they at least have the great and rare enjoyment of accompanying in thought one of the most suggestive and inspiring of writers.

The philosophical dramas of M. Renan were never intended for the stage, and have only enough of the dramatic quality in them to carry the sympathetic reader through the mental and moral changes of the characters. But at the celebration of the anniversary of Victor Hugo a few weeks ago a little "Dialogue des Morts," which he had consented to write for the occasion, was produced upon the stage of the Théâtre-Français. It is entitled "1802," and is very short, only a few pages in length. The immortal shades of Corneille, Racine, Boileau, Voltaire, Diderot express their hopes and desires concerning the poets who are to continue their work in the new century just begun. At the close a little winged genius, who passes continually between the Elysian Fields and the world of mortals, brings them information of the birth of Victor Hugo, in whom will be united "le poète sublime que veut Corneille, le poète de la pitié que veut Racine, le génie large et profond que rêve Despréaux, le patriarche ami des hommes qu'imagine Voltaire." Not very much should have been expected from this slight sketch, and M. Renan has shown once more that to write an effective dramatic scene requires something more than even great poetic genius.

M. Paul Bourget has published the second and, as he informs us, the last volume of his 'Essais de Psychologie contemporaine' (Paris: Lemerre; Boston: Schoenhof). These had all appeared previously in the *Nouvelle Revue*, and the pre-

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face is therefore very appropriately addressed to the editor of that periodical, Mme. Edmond Adam. The main idea that runs through the two volumes is that the *états de l'âme* peculiar to a generation are contained in germ in the theories and dreams of the preceding generation. This idea M. Bourget has continued to develop in the present volume, in which he studies the state of souls under the Second Empire, as manifested in the writings of Dumas the younger, Leconte de Lisle, the Goncourt brothers, Turgeneff, and Amiel. The result is not cheerful. The world has become sadly pessimistic. The *mal du siècle* of René has had for its successor the moral nihilism of later writers, *la fatigue de vivre*, a gloomy perception of the vanity of every effort. M. Bourget seeks the cause for this. What he finds seems to apply especially to France, and yet it would be possible to discover like symptoms elsewhere, from different causes, assuredly. A distantly analogous state of mind in Russia has received the name of *oblomovism*, from the novel of 'Oblomoff,' by Gontcharoff, of which a part was translated and published in French two years ago. But it must be confessed the expression of this negation in France, whether in 'Bel-Ami' of M. de Maupassant or in 'À Rebours' of M. Huysmans, has not been savory or calculated to raise the spirits of the reader. It would seem to justify the recent remarks of M. Pailleron in the Academy to the effect that French gayety was dying out. Nor does the author propose a remedy. He studies the present state of things, describes it, not complacently, as some of his critics have accused him of doing, but seriously, sincerely, and minutely. To look upon M. Bourget's work merely as a piece of literary criticism would be to do it injustice, yet it is one of the most important contributions to this branch of literature since Sainte Beuve's day. For him, no less than for that eminent critic, the form is of the highest importance, and, although he claims that in his analysis he leaves aside æsthetic theories, he says what scarcely any one but a French critic could say and fully feel and mean, "mal écrire, c'est toujours et partout mal penser." If the converse of this be in any sense true, M. Bourget must have learned to think much since his first volume of essays was published. His style has gained in amplitude as well as in vigor. There is no more promising writer in France.

M. Ferdinand Brunetière has collected some of his latest contributions to the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and made of them the second volume of a series which he may extend indefinitely, under the title 'Histoire et Littérature' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof). Literature occupies by far the greater part of the volume, which contains reviews of some of the most important works lately published in France. As in his previous writings, M. Brunetière speaks with the authority of a man fully impressed with the value of his opinion, and he has a decided opinion upon many things, an opinion often at variance with generally received views. He is fond of emitting ideas which at first seem somewhat paradoxical, but which are rather the rehabilitating of old forgotten truths, as when he clears away some of the popular misconceptions about casuistry in 'Une apologie de la Casuistique.' He is also fond of showing his learning, and he has learning to show, and can meet specialists on their own ground, as he proves in his article headed "Trois Moliéristes," in which he handles rather severely Paul Lacroix, Édouard Fournier, and Auguste Vitu. The predominant trait in his criticism is its severity against those whom he dislikes, and he is not in sympathy with many tendencies of the new schools of prose and poetry in France, as is very apparent in all he says of Flaubert, of the Parnassians, and of the Naturalists.

The first serious, discriminating appreciation of M. Brunetière's work as a critic is to be found in M. Jules Lemaitre's 'Les Contemporains' (Paris: Lecène & Oudin; Boston: Schoenhof). These "Études et Portraits" were first published in the *Revue Bleue*, where they attracted much attention. The author was comparatively unknown, and in less than three years he has won for himself a high place among the most promising of the younger generation of French men of letters. Like Sarcey and many others, he gave up his position of *professeur* to devote himself exclusively to writing, and in this, his first important publication, we feel, perhaps too much, that the young writer has just thrown off certain uncomfortable shackles of his previous career. He cannot let an occasion slip by to talk of Corneille, Racine, Bossuet, especially of Bossuet, in a manner diametrically opposed to that which it is the proper thing to assume when treating these *classiques* in the official professorial tone. What he loves above all, what "thrills him with pleasure to the very marrow," is the literature of the second half of the nineteenth century, "si inquiète, si folle, si morose, si détraquée, si subtile." In this he is the very reverse of M. Brunetière, whose admirations are mostly lavished upon the seventeenth century, and especially upon Bossuet. But M. Lemaitre does not extend his benevolent admiration to all his contemporaries. To several he is not sparing of his disapproval, notably to M. Huysmans and to M. Ohnet. He begins by excusing himself to his readers for speaking to them at all of the latter, as he usually treats only of literary matters, whereas the novels of M. Georges Ohnet are only merchandise that sells well. He has charming chapters on Théodore de Banville, Sully-Prudhomme, Coppée, and Renan.

There exists no good general history of modern literature in French. The ambition of the very clever critic and novelist, Marc-Monnier, in the latter years of his life, was directed toward supplying this want. His first volume, 'La Renaissance, de Dante à Luther' (1884) was followed by a second, of which the last sheets were in the press when the author died, in April, 1885. This second volume bears the title, 'La Réforme, de Luther à Shakespeare' (Paris: Firmin-Didot; New York: Christern). It was to have been followed by a third, 'La Révolution.' In 'La Réforme' there is a good study of Calvin and the French and Swiss reformers. The author's treatment is broad, but not very deep. He has nothing new to say of Rabelais, the Pléïade, Montaigne. His chapters on Tasso, Giordano Bruno, Camoens, Cervantes, seem to be merely the lectures which he delivered in Geneva. His too rapid sketch of the Elizabethan age would be found very unsatisfactory by a student of English literature. Yet the two volumes are pleasant reading throughout, full of information, somewhat elementary, usually reliable, and rather abounding in quotations from the authors under consideration. In this respect the didactic character of the work is apparent, as it also is in the writer's great care to explain every statement, and not to write vaguely about the great authors as if he addressed readers who knew all about them. Marc-Monnier leans wherever he can on Vinet; hence we notice in him an aim more expressedly moral than is to be found in French critics generally. This, together with a certain rigidity of manner, is what characterizes the Swiss school of criticism to which Vinet gave the highest expression. Marc-Monnier, far more versatile than his master, though less earnest and deep, is in his manner true to the country of his adoption. The book is not properly a literary history, much less a critical essay upon the literary history of the sixteenth century. It is an easy-running comment upon the lives and works of the principal writers and thinkers of the period.

'Crime d'Amour' (Paris: Lemerre) is the embodiment by M. Paul Bourget of his essay on Alexandre Dumas, in his new volume of 'Psychologie contemporaine,' but it is much more than that. The essay, written some time ago, leads only to conclusions of the most hopeless and faithless despair in humanity; the novel, completed in the *Nouvelle Revue* only last month, is filled with a passionate sadness and pity for a humanity which has in it capabilities of regeneration the existence of which the school of pessimistic writers, and M. Bourget as long as he remained among them, seems never to have suspected. Throughout the book, but especially in the fourth and concluding part, the most original and powerful portion of the story, the influence of Tolstoi upon the author is evident. M. Bourget has not risen to the grandeur and purity of the great Russian, but he has felt his revivifying influence. If this tendency towards purer and loftier ideals should continue and develop in the work of M. Bourget, it may possibly overcome the great and serious sins against propriety and good taste which now make him, in spite of his great ability and power, a writer to whom unconditional praise cannot be given.

The new novel by M. Octave Feuillet, 'La Morte' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: Christern), has met with a success rivalling that which the productions of M. Georges Ohnet are accustomed to provoke. Before it had been published a week thirty-five editions had been sold, and this was after all Paris had read it as it appeared in numbers in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. M. Octave Feuillet is a writer who respects himself and his readers, which probably contributes as much to his great popularity as his unquestionable literary excellences, or even his tendencies in the direction of conventional political and religious opinions. Beside the young writers of the present day he seems to belong to another age rather than merely to another generation, and he pleases by his unlikeness to their pessimism and ultra-realism, as he does by his simplicity and repose of style in contrast to the elaboration and violence of manner prevailing among so many of them. In his latest work M. Octave Feuillet retains all the qualities of the author who wrote so many years ago the 'Roman d'un jeune homme pauvre' and the 'Histoire de Sibylle.'

'Wassili Samarin,' by M. Philippe Daryl (Paris: Hetzel; New York: Christern), is another novel which certainly is not realistic. Like M. Alphonse Daudet in 'Tartarin sur les Alpes,' the writer has taken the now conventional young Russian woman absorbed in revolutionary plots, and placed her in Switzerland; but M. Daryl has not the great talent of Daudet, and he has written only a moderately interesting and inoffensive story.

The Fight for Missouri from the election of Lincoln to the death of Lyon. By Thomas L. Snead, A. D. C. of the Governor, etc. Charles Scribner's Sons. Pp. viii, 322, 12mo.

THIS is a lively narrative of the efforts made by the Secessionists of Missouri to carry that State into the Southern Confederacy, and of the bold and successful efforts made to resist it by the Union men under the leadership of Frank P. Blair and General Lyon. It bears evidence of the sincerity with which it is written on every page. The writer, who both saw and took an active part in all that he relates, has tried to tell the story with as complete impartiality as is possible to one whose feelings and interests were deeply involved in the struggle. He says he has written the book because it was his duty to do so,

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and we assent to his judgment as to his duty and thank him for its performance.

Everything that throws light upon the action of the border States in the spring and summer of 1861 is valuable, and we feel that history has acquired new capital when honest participants and eye-witnesses tell us what occurred in any of those States at the outbreak of the war. The position of Missouri was peculiarly critical. Herself in the Union by the celebrated compromise of 1820, the repudiation of which was perhaps the most powerful of the incidents that led directly to the appeal to arms, surrounded on three sides by free States, conscious of the impossibility of being part of a Southern slave-Confederation which would thus thrust a wedge among what would be foreign free States, every interest and every argument urged Missouri to remain loyal. By a majority of eighty thousand her people determined to do so. Yet Governor Claiborne Jackson determined to carry her out of the Union. He organized the militia with the intent to use them for this purpose. He sought to prevent the organization of Union men or the enlisting of volunteers for the service of the United States. He called his militia into camp with a purpose of capturing the United States Arsenal. He entered into a treasonable correspondence with Jefferson Davis, and procured from the Southern Confederacy cannon to be used against the Federal garrison.

Blair and Lyon were far too acute to be deceived as to the purpose, and too bold to hesitate in doing what the hour demanded. The one as the political head of the loyal citizens, the other as the military commandant of the department, was equal to the occasion. Regiments were organized and mustered into the service of the United States. Lyon marched them against the Secessionist camp of "home-guards," and captured these and the cannon which had been seized by the Confederacy at Baton Rouge and smuggled into St. Louis to be used against the Government that owned them. The author frankly admits all these facts, and that Blair and Lyon properly interpreted them and wisely acted upon them. He speaks of the military movement as "Blair's rebellion against the State," but he narrates the facts so frankly that we may treat this as "a sop to Cerberus," since he shows that it must have been Governor Jackson who was plotting the insurrection against Missouri, after her 80,000 majority had determined to remain in the Union, and the Convention called by the Legislature had acted in that sense.

The leading characters of the book are Lyon, Blair, and Sterling Price. Despite some natural prejudice of the author, he has done much to give Lyon his proper place in history as a clear-headed, determined soldier, with a good deal of Chinese Gordon's energy of will and hot impatience of being crossed in what he thinks is right. In the light of this information from behind the scenes we can see that every step Lyon took was exactly what was needed. His fortification of the arsenal was necessary to prevent its being carried by a *coup de main*. His organization and drill of the St. Louis regiments was not a moment too soon. His march upon Camp Jackson proved at once his sagacity and his fitness for command. His march upon the State capital was necessary to make the Secessionist Governor show his true colors, and to prove that it was Davis and the Confederacy and not Missouri that Claiborne Jackson represented. His campaign of Springfield and Wilson's Creek was a success up to the moment of his death upon the battle-field, and, but for his death, the author admits that it would have ended in victory, and annihilated every vestige of secession power in Missouri. It is safe to say that no other officer in the service had then shown anything approaching his capacity or his prompt energy, and we cannot doubt that a great career would have been open to him had he lived.

Blair's energy was, in its sphere, equal to Lyon's. He was a public man with a much broader grasp than has commonly been believed, and this history of his activity and of his audacity shows that it was a rare combination of civil and military capacity when he and Lyon joined hands to save Missouri to the Union. The things his enemies then denounced as rash mischief-making, are now admitted to have been the proper and the successful counter-stroke to Secessionist plottings. Yet the outcry of the disunionists was not without its effect, and it would seem that Blair suffered in public estimation from the very things that should be his glory. He pierced the secrets of his opponents, and had the courage to strike without reference to their protestation (which is part of the regular programme of all insurrectionists) that they had as yet done nothing hostile to the Government. He was content to be judged by the event whether he was not right; and, by the honest statement of one who was in the inner counsels of the Secessionists, it is plain that he made no mistake. They lament, or did lament, the defeat of their purposes, but they give us the evidence that this man understood them, and won the results he was striving for.

Sterling Price is evidently the author's hero, and the picture presents him as an estimable and able man. A Union man by conviction, a member of the Convention and of the majority which refused to go out of the Union, his Southern prejudices and sympathies were such that, when war became inevitable, he went with the friends of his heart and the people of his class, against the Government to which he acknowledged his duty, and against the cause which he recognized as that of the interest of his State. This narrative stops with the battle of Wilson's Creek, but enough is told to make it easy to understand why General Price had the confidence of his neighbors and the devotion of his soldiers. A curious part of the history is the story of Gen. Ben McCullough's hesitation and delay in marching against Lyon, of Price's clear perception of the military policy, and of the self-abnegation with which he consented to serve under his junior if that junior would pursue the vigorous strategy which the occasion demanded. No so vivid an account of that important battle has been written. Certainly none has come from a more competent writer, and, like the rest of the book, it bears every mark of sincere truthfulness. Its statements may be corrected, but its spirit could hardly be improved. As a whole, the volume is among the most interesting of the minor contributions to the great war history, and is equally valuable whether we view it from the political or the military side.

Sylvan Winter. By Francis George Heath. With seventy illustrations by Frederick Golden Short, engraved by James D. Cooper. London: Kegan Paul & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford.

THIS work comes to us just as the winter is over, to make us feel how much we might have enjoyed the season under right instruction, though, indeed, the book is English, and its "wintry outlooks" and "wintry wood-lore" apply to this country only with a difference. The author takes leave to praise the illustrations, and well he may, for they are genuine woodcuts from sketches "instinct with a true feeling for Nature and full of delicate appreciativeness for quiet English country life"; indeed, are uncommonly good. One may suspect that the best part of the 350 pages of letterpress—namely, the chapters on Leafless Woods, Tree-ferns, and Spray-characteristics—were written for bringing out the illustrations. Throughout, the author has drawn freely upon Gilpin's 'Forest Scenery,' which he has recently edited; and so has made an attractive book, if not always critically accurate, yet mostly reliable, until, when treating of sylvan giants and the like, he takes up with English travellers' stories, and even personally endorses a very loose one. That is, he quotes from Mr. Marshall's "interesting book, 'Through America,'" the statement that in the Calaveras grove of big trees, "my friend [a travelling companion] counted in one tree as many as 2,000 rings," and Mr. Heath adds, "We can personally vouch for the accuracy of Mr. Marshall's statement as to the tree he and his friend examined, for he is a note-taker of unusual excellence." He might as well vouch "that a tree has been found in the Mariposa grove with 6,000 rings in it," which Mr. Marshall appends as a report. Now it is quite probable that some of the California big trees are 2,000 years old; but the felled one in the Calaveras grove—the only one of which the rings on the stump can be counted throughout—was less than 1,300 years old, as Mr. Heath records; and the only other available trunk of that grove is of no greater size, is too much damaged for the rings to be counted throughout, and, as well as can be ascertained, does not justify Mr. Marshall's friend's statement.

There is similar uncritical matter in the chapter on the uses of wood. For instance, the common application of the name sycamore to the great maple of Europe misleads the author into the statement that this tree furnished the sycamore wood of Egyptian mummy cases. We wonder if Mr. Heath originated or only adopted the notion that the horse-chestnut tree got its English name from the fanciful resemblance of its leaf-scars on the twigs to a horseshoe with its row of nails or nail holes. He might know that this qualifying prefix is a common one to denote coarseness—*e. g.*, horseradish, horsemint, horse-parsley, and even horse-sense. Let us not fail to mention the concluding chapter, in which the author is more at home than with plant lore, that on sylvan nomenclature. Here is a list of over 600 English towns, villages, or other places, which derive their names from the names of trees, forests, or other sylvan sources. Alas, that he should have included in the list, as one of the derivatives of *bois*, the name of *Boston!*

Discussions on Climate and Cosmology. By James Croll, LL.D. Edinburgh: Adam & Charles Black. 1885. 8vo, pp. 327.

THE body of facts with which physical science has to deal has become so great that it cannot be compassed by any one man. Alexander von Humboldt was the last of the learned who effectively essayed the task of grasping knowledge in a large way, and even he achieved it imperfectly. Hereafter we can hardly hope to have naturalists in the wider sense of the word, at least until a new intellectual variety of man is formed for the work. Even German diligence can in a very long life win no more than two hundred thousand hours for study, and such a term would probably not more than suffice for a mere review of the noteworthy labors of other men. Students who would advance learning feel that they must limit themselves to some narrow field, consoled by the sense that nature is a unit, and that they may find the spirit of the whole in their own small part of the universe.

The most unfortunate result of this partition of scientific labor arises from the fact that explorers cannot avail themselves of the methods and results of those who are employed in adjacent fields. It thus comes about that between

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many of our sciences there are areas which remain unexplored, for the reason that to prosecute research in them requires a good working knowledge of at least two sciences. In this way we are in danger of losing that unity of knowledge which is its highest good. The only way in which this evil can be met is through the labors of men who are broad-minded enough fairly to overcome the difficulties of adjacent sciences, at least as far as they pertain to their neutral or border grounds. Such men are now extremely necessary, but unfortunately their task demands a peculiar genius.

It has been the good fortune of geological science, which more than any other needs union with the other physical sciences, to secure in Dr. James Croll a man able to clear away some of the most formidable difficulties which beset it. A score of years ago, when Dr. Croll began his admirable work, the whole matter concerning the history of climatal changes, the very key to our understanding of the earth's history, was in darkness. Geologists saw the evidence of great changes in the records of several glacial periods at different stages of the past, but the efforts to explain the facts were futile. This question of climate could only be dealt with by one who could command a knowledge of the laws of the atmosphere as well as of astronomical conditions, and who at the same time could master the facts which geologists had gathered. Dr. Croll, in a succession of luminous memoirs which afterwards were assembled in his 'Climate and Time in Their Geological Relations,' has given us a clear and well-defined hypothesis going far to explain the changes of climate which, in swift succession, at one time brought a semi-tropical vegetation to within twelve degrees of the North Pole, and at another sent the glacial sheet to the shore at the mouth of the Hudson River. Dr. Croll's theory attributes these changes of climate to the varying excentricity of the earth's orbit, combined with the precession of the equinoxes and the rotation of the apsides, together with certain influences arising from the shape of the Atlantic coast line. These problems are too complicated for brief presentation, but in the masterly elucidations of the author they are made plain to the least informed reader. While the present writer, in common with many of his brother geologists, cannot yet accept Dr. Croll's theory as finally and without qualification demonstrated, or as sufficient to account for all great changes of climate of which we have evidence from the geological records, he has been driven to acknowledge that it is perhaps the most helpful aid which geologists have ever received from another department of science.

In his last volume on 'Climate and Cosmology' Dr. Croll is in the main engaged in disposing of the objections to his theory of climate which have been suggested by many critics, and in adding various minor considerations developed by the recent advances of science. His review of his reviewers is an admirable piece of literary work, gentle and gracious in its tone, and at the same time extremely effective as controversy. In the thirteenth chapter the author passes to new grounds. His consideration of the conditions of continental ice, in this and the following chapters, is the most extended and philosophical study which has ever been given to these difficult questions.

The last fifty pages of the book are devoted to the problems connected with the temperature of space, the origin and age of the sun's heat, and the origin of nebulæ. Astronomers and physicists, considering the sun's heat to be due to the action of gravity alone, have computed that not much more than 20,000,000 years could have elapsed since the solar mass was expanded to the limits of the earth's orbit. Dr. Croll's admirable researches into the duration of geologic time have shown that this term of years is entirely insufficient to account for known changes in the earth's crust. He has, therefore, been compelled to suggest a modification of the nebular theory, which in its way is as daring as the original hypothesis. His suggestion is, that the nebulæ, including that whence our solar system arose, have originated by the collision of dark masses moving with high velocities through space. When they come together these masses would convert the whole or a large part of their momentum into heat: their masses would fly into nebulous matter, which would begin its condensation into a solar system with a high temperature, and not, as the aforementioned computers have reckoned, with no temperature at all. We cannot undertake to set forth the details of this brilliant hypothesis, which the reader should follow in the text. In this essay, as in all his other work, the author seems, like the soul described by Virgil, able—

". . . ire per omnes
Terrasque tractusque maris cœlumque profundum."

The general reader, as well as the geologist, will find nothing more fascinating in the literature of physical science than is afforded him in Dr. Croll's works.

Poetry as a Representative Art. By George Lansing Raymond, L. H. D. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1886.

THIS volume is pretentious, and yet one hesitates to call it so, because it embodies a large amount of faithful and painstaking thought and of close analysis in obscure subjects, and is animated by the purely intellectual spirit. The author, however, is the possessor of a "system," evidently of huge dimensions, for this large book is only one chapter of "the work" which he outlines in his preface, and which will need as many volumes, one thinks, as Spencer's Philosophy. One of the great ideas of science has been seized by his mind—the conception, namely, that mental life is predominantly a rearrangement of the elements of nature, which, being interpreted in the province of æsthetics, means that art is a representation of nature; and this comprehensive generalization he proposes to reduce to its minute particulars. The end of such a task is determined only by a man's capacity for work; and if the volume on poetry is a sign, Professor Raymond has enough of that to make him brave the task of an æsthetic cyclopædist. He begins, having a special interest in elocution, with a long examination of the problems involved in the origin of language and those obscure associations of emotion with vowel and consonant sounds, iambic or trochaic stress, rhythmical intervals, etc., or, in general, of how language, considered merely as sound, is expressive; and, secondly, he investigates the same quality of words in their function as idea-equivalents. Both sound and idea are involved in the poetic work of which language is the instrument, and therefore these analyses are necessary parts of a complete account of poetry.

They are, however, preliminary. The substance of his book is that poetry represents nature always by images, either primarily by the object itself, or secondarily by an illustrative object; all other elements in poetry, *i. e.*, all in which there is no appeal to the faculty of immediate perception, he regards as "alloy." Thus when Homer's warrior withdraws behind the ranks, there is a visible image; but when it is added that his retirement was due to shame, that motive, not being perceptible to the sense, is not re-presentable, and, as a mere inference of the reason, is an "alloy." We are *told* he was ashamed instead of being made to *see* it. This is the argument of Professor Raymond. It is neither complex, subtle, nor novel; but by subdivision and amplification of details, and especially by an excessive amount of quotation of examples, the book itself is swelled out until it imposes on the reader by its mere bulk. The careful schematization, too, aids the impression that this is a scientific work of real originality and consequence; in fact, it is nothing of the kind, but only a tedious elaboration of simple principles. It sometimes happens that an investigator mistakes the classification of a subject in his own mind, originally wrought out, as a discovery of great consequence, when after all it is old truth. This seems to have occurred in this case; for, though Professor Raymond's labor and spirit make us desire to show him respect for the personal element in his book, its scientific and critical element has been anticipated. If he had compressed his words into fifty pages, he would have written a useful essay, but in over three hundred it is quite another matter.

The Life and Speeches of Joseph Cowen, M.P. London: Sampson Low & Co.

THERE is a certain posthumous sound about such a title as this which at first caused us to fear that the eminent member for Newcastle might have been taken from this world without our knowledge; but we hasten to assure our readers that Mr. Cowen yet lives and yet speaketh. For all that we can see, it will be necessary to publish his life and speeches from time to time for some years to come, for we discover no evidence of decrease of vitality in him, and the power of speech-making once acquired is not likely to fall into disuse. The enthusiastic compiler of this volume says that he found some difficulty in persuading Mr. Cowen to accede to his wishes, on the ground that the few friends who thought his harangues tolerable at the time of their delivery would never be at the trouble of reading them when the occasion that lent them a temporary interest had passed. This is a properly modest understatement; it is not true, we venture to say, of Mr. Cowen's personal friends, but it is quite true of the general public. Old speeches are like old newspapers: there must be something extraordinary about them to make people read them out of date. These are very good speeches of Mr. Cowen's; they are very well expressed, and we are informed that they were very well delivered; they show a vast amount of common sense, a most commendable independence of judgment, and, to our mind, a very respectable order of statesmanship. But they are not in themselves of such distinguished literary excellence, nor are they connected with such momentous occasions, as to be of permanent value to any one but the historical student. Nevertheless, since Mr. Cowen (who is both an M.P. and proprietor of a great newspaper, the Newcastle *Chronicle*) was a hearty friend of the North during the civil war, and manfully lifted up his voice in protest against English sympathy with a slaveholding power, his biography is entitled to respectful consideration at our hands. His life has been in many respects a typical one. Born to a great and honorably distinguished manufacturing business, he has generously advocated education, coöperation, and all reforms by which the condition of working people might be improved. His ruling passion has evidently been that of love for liberty, and it has been steadily manifested in favor of every people that has struggled for self-government. He was intimate with Kossuth and the other Hungarian leaders, with the Polish revolutionists, with Herzen and Bakunin, with Ledru Rollin and Louis Blanc, with Mazzini, Garibaldi, and the rest of the Italian patriots. So active was he in support of the plans of these agitators that at one time nearly the whole continent of Europe was closed to him by the despotic govern-

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ments then prevailing, which maintained spies at Newcastle to watch his movements, while he exposed himself to persecution at home by enlisting volunteers to serve under Garibaldi.

That Mr. Cowen's devotion to liberty is genuine is proved by his own course in Parliament. Upon a number of occasions he has opposed the Liberal party because he believed that their policy was not in harmony with Liberal principles. He condemned the interference in Egypt and has consistently opposed the coercion of Ireland. He has long called for home rule for that country, and we judge from his speeches that he foresaw the events which are now taking place, and declared that they were inevitable. In this respect at least he may probably claim to have been in advance of his country and of his party. This may yet prove true of his advocacy of female suffrage. The enlightened character of his Liberalism appears clearly, again, in his protests against the centralization of government, against the *clôture* in Parliament, against the dictation of party, and especially against the introduction of the "caucus system" into English politics. Mr. Cowen is a representative Englishman, and especially a representative of that fine type of English Liberalism that is now unfortunately a little old-fashioned. The present Life is a mere sketch; we could spare some of the speeches if we could be told more of the details of Mr. Cowen's relations with the agitators of Europe. When the time comes we judge that a biography of genuine historical value might be written; but we trust that that time may be long postponed, and so, we doubt not, do the citizens of Newcastle.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Sedgwick-Wait. Treatise on Trial of Title to Land. 2d ed. Baker, Voorhis & Co.
Seely, H. A Ranchman's Stories. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Shaw, Flora L. Colonel Cheswick's Campaign. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Sinclair, Ellery. Christie's Choice. T. R. Knox & Co.
Stephen, Leslie. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. VI. Macmillan & Co. $3.25.
Stephen, Sir J. F. Digest of the Law of Evidence, with Notes by John Wilder May. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Stickney, J. H. Hans Andersen's Fairy Tales. First Series. Edited for School and Home Use. Boston: Ginn & Co. 45 cents.
Stockton, Frank R. The Late Mrs. Null. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Story, J. Commentaries on Equity Jurisprudence. Edited by M. M. Bigelow. 13th ed. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Tales from Many Sources. Vols. V. and VI. Dodd, Mead & Co. 75 cents each.
The Blessed Easter-Tide. A. D. F. Randolph & Co.
The Life of a Prig. By One. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
The Order of Creation. A Controversy between Hon. W. E. Gladstone, Prof. Max Müller, Prof. T. H. Huxley, and Others. The Truth Seeker Co. 15 cents.
Thompson, E. F. Abridgment of Kent's Commentaries on American Law. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.50.
Three Martyrs of the Nineteenth Century: Studies from the Lives of Livingstone, Gordon, and Patteson. By the Author of the Schönberg-Cotta Family. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Tolstoi, Count L. N. Anna Karénina. Translated by N. H. Dole. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.75.
Tolstoi, Comte Léon. Les Cossaques: Souvenirs de Sébastopol. Boston: Schoenhof.
Tower, G. B. N. Useful Things to Know about Steam Boilers. American Steam Boiler Insurance Co.
Tredwell, D. M. A Sketch of the Life of Apollonius of Tyana. Frederic Tredwell.
Tulloch, John. Movements of Religious Thought in Britain During the Nineteenth Century. Harper & Bros. 25 cents.
Underhill, A. F. Etchings in Verse. Brentano Bros.
Upton, G. P. Women in Music. 2d ed. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Vos, G. The Mosaic Origin of the Pentateuchal Codes. A. C. Armstrong & Co. $1.50.
Walford, L. B. The History of a Week: A Novel. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Walker, W. F. The Azores: or Western Islands. London: Trübner & Co.
Walworth, Mrs. J. H. Old Fulkerson's Clerk. Cassell & Co. 25 cents.
Weeks, J. D. Labor Differences and Their Settlement: A Plea for Arbitration and Conciliation. Society of Political Education. 25 cents.
Wenckebach, Prof. C. and Helene. Deutscher Anschauungs-Unterricht für Amerikaner. F. W. Christern.
What is Theosophy? By a Fellow of the Theosophical Society. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.
Whitaker, J. Almanac for 1886. London: J. Whitaker.
White, R. G. Words and their Uses. 9th ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Winsor, J. Narrative and Critical History of America. Vol. II. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.50.
Winter, J. S. A Man of Honor: A Novel. Harper & Bros. 25 cents.
Winter, J. S. Cavalry Life, or Sketches and Stories in Barracks and Out. Harper & Bros. 25 cents.
Winthrop, Lt.-Col. W. Military Law. 2 vols. Washington: W. H. Morrison.
Willey, Rev. A. History of the Anti-Slavery Cause in State and Nation. Portland, Me.: Brown Thurston. $2.
Wonder Library. Wonders of the Moon. Wonders of Italian Art. Charles Scribner's Sons. 2 vols. $1 each.
Wright, Annie L. Little Heartsease. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers. $1.
Zola, E. The Shop Girls of Paris. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 75 cents.

Fine Arts.

EXHIBITION OF THE "PLEIN-AIRISTES."

THE exhibition at the American Art Galleries is a fuller demonstration of the aims and daring of a certain revolutionary set than has ever been made in Europe, not excepting the collection there made of the works of Manet himself. The pictures are brought to us by M. Durand-Ruel, himself an interesting and apostolic figure, a friend of the new painters, who has impoverished himself to keep their art alive, and who has paid for his sympathies at the expense of a considerable fortune. He is pointed out in Paris as a curious unworldly type, a dealer with a religion, whose estate has constantly been hypothecated to maintain the necessary advances to his protégés, and whose means have been greatly wasted in the interest of his propaganda. He is one who should be peculiarly sympathetic to the American people, since he has always been forward with practical recognition of American talent, and has made a flourishing market, for instance, for the fine Indian studies of our compatriot, Mr. Weeks, one or more of which are always to be seen in the brilliant windows of the establishment on the Rue Royale. As M. Durand-Ruel arranges, however, his ample exhibition for the eyes of the New Yorkers, it may occur to us to doubt whether he has the full courage of his convictions; he has made of the principal room a sort of choice showing of elected pictures, somewhat like the Square Salon of the Louvre or the Tribune of the Uffizi; and in this sifted company there are not to be found the specimens which most plainly show the ardors of the school; it is not there that we find the great "Bathing" (170) of Seurat—a picture which really seems composed in quite arbitrary camaïeu colors; nor the "Bather" (220) of Renoir, whose shadowless white flesh is a mere enlargement of some Eve out of an old missal. In this room of the elect, on the contrary, where the visitor gets his first impression, the pictures are comprehensible by anybody. And a rare lot of masterpieces they are; they are so good, and show so much sanity, that it is hard to suppose that their owner quite believes in them.

It is there, for instance, that we find the "Study" of Roll, the nude sunshiny girl leading a young black bull down toward her bathing-place. This painting was certainly recognized by artists as the most marvellous piece of technic in the last Salon; the flash and glare of noon-light on naked flesh, relieved with flushed shadows scarcely less luminous, was acknowledged to be masterly. The want of sympathy, though, with flesh as flesh, as a live tissue fed by circulation, was at the same time pointed out. "It is a glorious trick," said a competent artist, "but I feel as if the painter believed he was painting something dead—like sunshine on a patch of dried grass." In this room, too, is the "Marceau" of Laurens, a picture not at all in harmony with the school, a grand piece of sculptural repose in the midst of things whose business it is to flicker and flutter. Near it is the impressive Manet, "Faure as *Hamlet*," where the actor's neck, illumined by the footlights, is frankly made the high-light of the picture, rather than the face. Manet's "Still Life" (23), again, is one of the *natures-mortes* in which he was confessedly incomparable, and is one of his best and most easily understood; it contains a specimen of his capitally scaly fish, and a cut lemon, surely the most cruelly sour lemon ever painted. The same artist's "Rochefort" shows mysteriously, as did the "Zola," how a likeness can be hit without the possession of a single vestige of drawing. The individual is there, yet not one of the forms is right. The young "Fifer of the Guard," another Manet, though more unconventional in treatment, a mere flash of red breeches in the air, awakens interest in the Philistine because it is gallant and youthful. In this room, too, is the most reasonable of the studies of Degas, the artist who wholly forsakes civilization to live in the other-worldliness of the theatre; it is the ballet in "Robert," with a foreground of correct spectators relieved against the white orgy of the wicked nuns. Again, in this saloon we perceive the Dumaresqs and John Lewis Browns which are the commonplaces of the picture market; and here is the large Lerolle, "The Organ"—a fair singer alone in the giddy space of the upper gallery, which somehow hangs visibly in the air in the emptiness and starkness of its proper elevation above a (supposed) crowded floor; and which is a canvas sufficiently evident and explicable to the world of plain folk; and alongside is the "Grand Toulon Road" of Montenard, whose white expanse, done in palette-knife work, successfully blinds the mere gallery-haunter's eye, and whose admirable painting may recall to American spectators the sunny beauty of Mr. Picknell's "Route de Concarneau."

These popular attractions, concentrated in the room first entered, are not the revolutionary explosions on which M. Durand-Ruel has staked his faith. It is up stairs that the courageous visitor will find, in unprecedented profusion, the magnificent insanities of which, in their general manifestation, Gérôme said latterly: "Ah, mon ami, nous nageons à plein dans la cochonnerie!"

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